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ABSTRACT

Information on teaching techniques, student evaluation, and campus resources is presented for new teaching assistants. Topics include: lecturing, leading discussion sessions (especially in the humanities and social sciences), teaching the laboratory section, teaching a section of a course, teaching a foreign language, office hours, and use of the blackboard and audiovisual equipment. The section on evaluating student performance covers exams and quizzes; papers, essays, and major class projects; homework; grading and record-keeping; and cheating and plagiarism. Academic policies affecting undergraduates and academic deadlines for undergraduate and graduate students are specified. The following campus resources are covered: study skills, tutoring, and academic skill building programs; academic advising and the academic deans' offices; programs for students with special needs; library services; audiovisual, computing and testing services; health services/personal counseling; and career advising and placement/vocational counseling programs. Information on U.S. education is included for foreign teaching assistants. A three-page annotated bibliography deals with general works, journals, and books on test construction. A list of teacher assistant handbooks is also provided. Appended is a six-page list of audiovisual resources for improving teaching methods and techniques. (SW)

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The materials in the Special Collection on the Training of Teaching Assistants were developed through the active efforts of numerous educators who first met at the 1986 National Conference on the Institutional Responsibilities and Responses in the Employment and Education of Teaching Assistants held at the Ohio State University. Assisted by more than 80 individuals, the committee chairs listed below were able to establish the collection which will be developed and maintained by the ERIC Clearinghouse for Higher Education. This arrangement will enable faculty members, faculty developers, administrators, TA supervisors, and graduate teaching assistants to have access to TA training materials produced by institutions across the nation.

Task Force on Establishing a National Clearinghouse of Materials Developed for TA Training

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UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN-MADISON
COLLEGE OF LETTERS AND SCIENCE

Manual for Teaching Assistants

September, 1985

(Second printing--June, 1987)

INTRODUCTION

Welcome to the College of Letters and Science!

This Manual for Teaching Assistants is intended particularly for those who are teaching for the first time, although we hope that more experienced teaching assistants and perhaps new faculty members will also find it helpful. Some of the information contained in these pages will be available to you through your course supervisor or department chairman, but the Manual will serve as a useful supplementary resource. We plan to add to the Manual in the future, and will welcome your comments, suggestions, and criticisms to assist us in making future editions better and more comprehensive. We hope to hear from you.

In planning the structure of this Manual we made considerable use of similar publications by other universities across the country. We are especially indebted to several of the campuses of the University of California System and to Stanford University for sharing copies of their handbooks. We also benefited from manuals and other materials used by several departments within the College, and from the materials listed in the bibliography.

Comments and reactions should be directed to Nancy Jo Westphal, 207 South Hall (263-2506), who had the leading role in putting this Manual together. Even a casual glance through these pages will show what a major assignment this was and how impressively she has accomplished it. But we hope you will give the Manual more than a casual reading; you will find it full of useful information.

Dean E. David Cronon
September, 1985

This Manual for Teaching Assistants has, we hope, been helpful to new teaching assistants since we first prepared it in the fall of 1985. While we have not carried out a systematic updating of the manual, we are providing it again for new teaching assistants as background for their new responsibilities. Most of the booklet deals with teaching techniques, and is thus less subject to becoming outdated. You might note, however, that the references to the Labs for Recorded Instruction (LRI), a program which provides considerable technical support for instructional efforts in the College of Letters and Science, should now read Learning Support Services (LSS), as the name was changed to better reflect the wide-ranging assistance provided by this program. We should further note that since the University's teaching and project assistants voted in April, 1987, for representation by a union, the Teaching Assistants Association, it is likely that the section of this manual titled "Operating Within A Departmental and College Structure" will need revision in the future.

L & S JUNE, 1987

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OPERATING WITHIN A DEPARTMENTAL AND COLLEGE STRUCTURE

Organizational Structure of the University and College

The UW-Madison is a large university with over 40,000 students and over 12,000 faculty, academic staff, and classified employees. It is a part of the University of Wisconsin System and is a major national teaching and research university. The UW-Madison offers over 300 undergraduate and graduate majors and is well-respected, both in the U.S. and abroad, for the quality of its instruction and research. The University is headed by a Chancellor, and has a strong tradition of faculty governance and decentralized authority among the schools and colleges that make up the university. There are 13 schools and colleges on campus, each administered by a Dean. The College of Letters and Science is the largest college unit on campus with over 21,000 undergraduate and graduate students, more than 40 academic departments, four professional schools, a number of research institutes and centers, and other programs and activities such as the Elvehjem Museum of Art. Academic departments in the College represent all four of the campus curricular divisions--humanities, social studies, biological sciences, and physical sciences--and cover all the basics of a liberal arts education.

Each of the College's departments and programs has a Chairman or Director and a faculty Executive Committee consisting of all tenured members of the department. Departmental faculty have responsibility for academic matters such as development and scheduling of courses, hiring of staff members, and requirements for majors. Each department may have a somewhat different organization and provide for types of support services and facilities which the teaching and research in the disciplinary field require. Your appointing department may provide you with additional information detailing its organization, support services, and facilities.

Policies Affecting Your Teaching Assistantship

Your duties and obligations as a teaching assistant are governed by UW-Madison Teaching Assistant Policies and Procedures. Your employing department will provide you with a copy of this and with Teaching Assistantships in the College of Letters and Science, which summarizes aspects of the policies. You should be sure you understand the conditions of your appointment; your letter of appointment sets forth the terms of your individual appointment, and as such is also an important reference document.

Role of the Teaching Assistant and Your Relationship to Other Staff Members

Teaching assistants are an important component of the instructional staff at UW-Madison and their contributions are highly valued. All teaching assistants work with instructional staff members who are in charge of courses to which the teaching assistants are assigned. The relationship between the supervising faculty member and the teaching assistant is an important one for both, and you will find faculty members eager to work with you to ensure that students learn well and that the teachers of the course, the faculty member and the assistant, teach well. Many graduate students who serve as teaching assistants will later become teachers and professors in their major field of study. Faculty members, then, often view the teaching assistant as a junior colleague and as a professional apprentice who is receiving important training and experience for later professional activities.

Teaching assistants in the College are assigned varying instructional duties depending upon the needs of the curriculum in their appointing departments. Generally, these duties fall into one of three broad categories. In many instances, the teaching assistant will be responsible for conducting discussion sections attached to large lecture classes, will consult with students, and will be involved in the grading of exams and student assignments. Other teaching assistants will be responsible for laboratory sections of courses, and still others will be responsible for teaching a section of an undergraduate course under the supervision of a faculty member. Although these are the most common types of instructional duties, other teaching assistants may be assigned still different duties depending on the department and course to which they are attached.

One of your responsibilities as a teaching assistant may be to serve on the departmental "assignment committee" used during course registration. You may also be visited by students wanting to take your section but unable to fit in. Remember that you don't do anyone a favor by making arrangements outside the assignment committee process. It is unfair to students who do try to go through proper channels, and it may even do a disservice to the student you are trying to help if he or she is not allowed to stay in the class because of improper registration. Class size limits set by departmental or campus policy cannot be modified on an ad hoc basis by an individual teaching assistant. If you have a potential student with a pressing need to enroll in a particular class, consult (or send the student to consult) the staff member in charge of the assignment committee to see if a way can be found to help.

In fulfilling their duties, most teaching assistants will also meet other members of the departmental staff on a regular basis. To be able to work cooperatively and effectively with departmental secretaries, lab personnel, and academic staff members will be a great asset and a significant help for you, both as you begin your teaching career and as you continue it.

WHAT YOUR STUDENTS MAY BE LIKE

Virtually every UW-Madison undergraduate student will take several courses in the College of Letters and Science, either to fulfill a requirement or because of interest in a particular subject. The College itself has 17,000+ undergraduate students. The student body is large and diverse because of the variety of educational goals and interests of the students, and because of the diverse educational opportunities provided by the UW-Madison. You may expect to find this diversity reflected in the student composition of the courses you teach. In most introductory level courses in the College (those most likely to have teaching assistant involvement), your students in any one class may range from the pre-business to the pre-med student and from freshman to senior. Since there are over 100 undergraduate majors offered on the campus, you will find your students working to meet a wide range of degree requirements. Your students may be valedictorians of their high school classes or in need of remedial assistance in order to master the course material; they may range in age from 16 to 85. They may attend school part or full-time and they will have many outside responsibilities and interests. You will find that students' academic, social, and cultural backgrounds vary greatly.

Many of the University's students will be concerned about their future careers, and some may be worried about formulating and meeting vocational goals. Students must meet increasingly competitive admissions standards for various undergraduate and graduate programs and for many this creates a very stressful situation. The student's response to the situation is often reflected by a heightened concern about grades. Such concern should not be denigrated or taken lightly. The student needs to have a clear idea of what is expected in a course, and how he or she is meeting that expectation. You will not be able to, nor should you be expected to, tell a student exactly what grade she or he is likely to receive in a course. However, at least by the seventh or eighth week of the semester, you should be able to identify those students who are having significant difficulties and urge them to improve their work or consider dropping the course before or during the ninth week of classes, the course drop deadline for all undergraduates.

Freshmen and sophomores generally report that they are surprised at the amount of work required in college, regardless of their high school preparation. Some of them also find they lack effective study skills. As a teaching assistant, you will need to give thought not only to the material you teach, but also how to teach students to learn it. Some teaching assistants teach subjects which are largely unfamiliar to their students. For example, many entering freshmen have never studied a foreign language before and will have little idea of how to study for such a class. In other instances, you may find that your students, although they have had exposure to the subject area, approach it with fear and trepidation. This may be particularly true of students who are concerned about their writing or math skills.

Transition to a large university environment can be both exciting and confusing for students on the academic as well as the personal and social levels. For many students, you will be one of the first personal contacts they have in what can be a very intimidating environment. Some students will feel more comfortable talking with their teaching assistant than with their professors or other university staff members, and students may often turn to you for advice on both academic and nonacademic concerns. Although you cannot be expected to help students with problems unrelated to your course, you will be doing them a great service if you can point them in the right direction to receive help with the problems and situations they may be encountering.

CAMPUS RESOURCES: TEACHING ASSISTANTS AND STUDENTS

Additional information about campus resources (and much other valuable information for those new to both the campus and the city) is found in Wheat and Chaff: Student Resource Handbook, which also contains the official UW-Madison student rule book. Wheat and Chaff is published and distributed each year by the Campus Assistance Center, 420 North Lake Street, and is available at various locations on campus. Resource referrals given here are those you may find most helpful in your dual role of teacher and student.

STUDY SKILLS/TUTORING/ACADEMIC SKILL BUILDING/ACADEMIC ENHANCEMENT

Both UW-Madison in general and the College of Letters and Science in particular offer many services designed to enhance student learning and academic skill building. Brief descriptions of some of these services are given below:

THE WRITING LAB, 6171 Helen C. White Hall, 263-9305, 263-3820 (cancellations only). Assists students with writing and organizing papers and with problems related to academic writing at all levels. Assistance is provided both on a one-to-one basis and through short-term group work. The service is free to all students.

ACADEMIC ADVANCEMENT PROGRAM, 410 South Hall, 263-5068. Offers academic support for minority and/or disadvantaged students. Tutorial services and instruction in reading, study skills, and writing are available for all AAP students.

CHEMISTRY TUTORIAL PROGRAM, 1124 W. Johnson, 263-5647. Offers both individual and small group tutorials for students enrolled in Chemistry 103, 104, and 108. Two-hour problem solving sessions for each of these courses are given weekly.

MATH TUTORIAL PROGRAM, 321 Van Vleck Hall, 263-6817. Offers free tutoring for students enrolled in Math 112, 113, 211, 221, and 222. Students may be referred to the program by their instructor; eligibility is determined through an interview with the Director.

BIOLOGY TUTORIAL PROGRAM, 137 Birge Hall, 262-7254. Designed to help students enrolled in Botany 130 and Zoology 101-102. Small group and individual tutoring emphasize basic concepts and study skills.

THE HONORS PROGRAM, COLLEGE OF LETTERS AND SCIENCE, 409 South Hall, 262-2984. Virtually all departments in the College offer eligible undergraduates the opportunity to pursue honors coursework, providing the opportunity for advanced academic challenges. Eligible students may also join the Honors Program and earn sophomore honors and/or an honors degree.

ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE PROGRAM, 5134 Helen C. White Hall, 263-3780. Offers non-degree courses in English as a Second Language for non-native speakers of English. Special modular courses for non-native English speaking teaching assistants are also offered. The program maintains a list of volunteer and for-hire tutors in English as a Second Language.

UNIVERSITY COUNSELING SERVICE, 905 University Avenue, 262-1744. The Study Skills Program provides individual and group instruction in reading and study skills. There is a minimal charge for materials; instruction covers many aspects of academic work. The Test Anxiety Program offers group sessions aimed at helping students relax in testing situations.

THE DEPARTMENT OF COUNSELING AND GUIDANCE, 321 Education Building, 262-0461. Offers three modular courses for undergraduates concentrating on human relations, career choice, and academic success skills. The one credit courses do not count for degree credit in Letters and Science.

GUTS/HASH (Greater University Tutoring Service/Help at Student Housing), 303 Union South, 263-5666. A student-run, volunteer tutoring program. Tutors provide help, free of charge, for a large number of university courses. GUTS/HASH sponsors open hours lounges in campus libraries to provide short-term help on a drop-in basis, a one-on-one tutoring program, and study groups under the guidance of an experienced tutor.

ACADEMIC ADVISING/ACADEMIC DEANS' OFFICES

All undergraduate UW-Madison degree candidates are affiliated with a school or college responsible for monitoring and guiding the student's overall academic progress. Undergraduate students who have been admitted to a major also receive guidance from, and must meet the requirements of, their major department, program, or school. (Graduate students are affiliated with their department and with the Graduate School, both of which have responsibility for monitoring academic work and progress.) The following is a list of undergraduate academic deans' offices. A listing of student classifications for your use when deciding where to refer students for academic advising is found in Appendix B. Students thinking about transferring from one college to another should usually speak with a staff member in the Dean's Office of the college or school to which they wish to transfer.

COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURAL AND LIFE SCIENCES, 116 Agriculture Hall, 262-3003.

SCHOOL OF ALLIED HEALTH PROFESSIONS, Room 1087 Medical Sciences Center, 1300 University Avenue, 263-6800.

SCHOOL OF BUSINESS, 108 Commerce, 262-0471. Students are not admitted as degree candidates in the School of Business until their junior year. Freshmen and sophomores working toward gaining admission are classified as pre-business students in the College of Letters and Science, but may wish to speak with staff members in the School of Business concerning admission and requirements.

COLLEGE OF ENGINEERING, 22 General Engineering Building, 262-2473 (freshmen) and 266 Mechanical Engineering Building, 262-3484 (sophomores, juniors, and seniors). Help with study skills and career and personal counseling for engineering students are available in addition to academic advising.

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, B117 Education Building, 262-4917. Students are admitted to Education at various points in their undergraduate careers, depending on the particular program in which they are interested.

SCHOOL OF FAMILY RESOURCES AND CONSUMER SCIENCES, 140 Home Economics Building, 262-2608.

COLLEGE OF LETTERS AND SCIENCE, 104 South Hall, 262-2644. The Faculty Advising Service (FAS), 307 South Hall, 262-1849, provides advising on degree requirements and possible major fields of study for freshmen and sophomore students in the College. FAS also offers pre-law and pre-med advising. The Student Academic Affairs Dean's Office provides advising for all students in the college. Students and university staff members may call Dial-a-Dean (262-2644) to speak directly with a member of the Dean's staff.

SCHOOL OF NURSING, Room K6/222 Clinical Science Center, 600 Highland Avenue, 263-5166.

SCHOOL OF PHARMACY, 5216 Chamberlin Hall, 262-6234. Students are not admitted to the program until their junior year, but should contact the school about pre-pharmacy requirements and career information. Until admitted to the program, students are classified as pre-pharmacy students in the College of Letters and Science.

INTERCOLLEGE PROGRAMS, 433 N. Murray Street, 262-2115. Serves as the academic home for non-degree students not affiliated with another school or college.

STUDENTS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS

CONTINUING EDUCATION SERVICES, 905 University Ave., Suite 1, 263-6960. Provides individual vocational and educational counseling, as well as vocational testing and referral for returning adult students. Group workshops are also offered.

McBURNEY CENTER FOR STUDENTS WITH DISABILITIES, 905 University Ave., 263-2741. Provides assistance with registration and acquisition of course materials in alternate forms (Braille, tape, etc.) and advance timetable information. Offers help with registration, development of alternative test formats, parking arrangements, library services, study aids, etc. for students with permanent and short-term disabilities. First and primary point of contact for students with disabilities who have questions related to creating an effective learning/living environment on campus.

OFFICE FOR FOREIGN STUDENTS AND FACULTY, 115 Science Hall, 262-2044. The official university office for assisting foreign students and faculty who have questions about the campus and community or about U.S. and foreign government regulations. Before foreign students accept a job, they must contact this office. The office also serves as a referral point for social activities for foreign students and their families.

LIBRARY SERVICES

There are a number of libraries on campus, some connected with the campus central library system and others maintained by individual departments or programs. Only two of these libraries are discussed here; contact the Information Desk at Memorial Library (262-3193) for information about other libraries on campus. Holdings for most major campus libraries are cataloged in Memorial Library on the second floor.

MEMORIAL LIBRARY, 726 State Street, 262-3193. The main library on campus, housing the university's general collection with emphasis on the humanities and social sciences, the interlibrary loan office, facilities for study, and other specialized collections and services. Study carrels with locks are available for graduate students.

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COLLEGE LIBRARY, Helen C. White Hall, 262-3245. This separate undergraduate library was developed to meet the day-to-day needs of undergraduate students and also houses the Reserve Book Room. Professors and teaching assistants are encouraged to bring classes to the library for instruction in the use of library materials (call 262-2016).

AUDIO-VISUAL, COMPUTING, AND TESTING SERVICES

LABS FOR RECORDED INSTRUCTION (LRI), 259 and 274 Van Hise Hall, 262-1408. An audiovisual collection containing materials from many disciplines. Lab orientations are held at the beginning of each semester. Audiotapes, videocassettes, and slide-tape programs are available for use in the labs. The Media Library features a tape lending service for slides, audio materials, and videotapes in various disciplines. LRI also maintains audio recording and duplicating studios. **A listing of available videotapes concerning teaching assistant training is found in Appendix A. In addition, LRI offers teaching assistants the opportunity to videotape their classes as a means of improving teaching performance and you are encouraged to take advantage of this service. Contact the Labs for more information about these resources and services.**

BUREAU OF AUDIO-VISUAL SERVICES (BAVI), 1327 University Avenue, 262-1644. BAVI offers audio-visual equipment rental and delivery, maintains an extensive rental film library, and will offer a free short course and demonstrations in the use of audio-visual equipment for departments that request it.

MADISON ACADEMIC COMPUTING CENTER (MACC), 1210 W. Dayton Street, 262-0284. Among its many services, MACC offers free consulting services for short-term computing problems both at 1210 W. Dayton and in Room 3224C Social Sciences Building (call 262-6886 for schedule information). Consulting on a fee basis is also available.

DATA AND COMPUTATION CENTER, 3218 Social Science Building, 262-7962. The Center acquires, stores, and distributes computer data files from all social sciences as they become available and are requested for secondary analysis by faculty and staff. Individual and classroom instruction on use of such research data is provided. A directory of holdings is available at no charge.

TESTING AND EVALUATION SERVICES, 366 Educational Sciences Building 262-5863. Provides assistance with test scoring, item analysis, and questionnaire processing for both course evaluation and general purpose questionnaires. The College contracts with Testing and Evaluation for services; therefore most forms of assistance are provided at no direct charge.

HEALTH SERVICES/PERSONAL COUNSELING

UNIVERSITY HEALTH SERVICE, 1552 University Avenue, 262-3016. Provides care for all university students; the health care fee is included in registration fees. An urgent care clinic is available. Contact the Service for information concerning specific health care services available.

EMERGENCY ROOM, UW HOSPITAL, Clinical Science Center, 600 Highland Avenue, 262-2398. Contact when illness or accident require immediate medical attention.

UNIVERSITY COUNSELING SERVICE, 905 University Avenue, Room 401, 262-1744. Offers free personal counseling for anyone affiliated with the university. Small group counseling sessions are also available.

DEAN OF STUDENTS OFFICE, 109 Bascom, 263-5700. Provides direct counseling for students or provides them with appropriate referrals to other agencies. If you believe that one of your students is in an immediate crisis situation, contact this office or the student's academic dean's office immediately.

UNIVERSITY DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHIATRY, ACUTE PSYCHIATRIC SERVICE, Clinical Science Center, 600 Highland Avenue, 263-6100. This service is for students who have an urgent problem that cannot wait for a regular appointment (such students should report to the Emergency Room of UW Hospital during nighttime hours). Brief therapy and referral to appropriate services are provided.

CAREER ADVISING AND PLACEMENT/VOCATIONAL COUNSELING

Placement Services

Campus placement services are designed to aid graduating students in securing employment related to their field of study. Most offices have staff members who will assist students with resume writing, interview techniques, job hunting strategies, and career decision-making. The following is a list of formal placement services on campus. Some academic departments are also able to provide assistance in this area.

AGRICULTURE AND LIFE SCIENCES, 103 Agriculture Hall, 262-3001.

BUSINESS, 10 Commerce Building, 262-2550, 262-2810.

EDUCATION, B150 Education, 262-1755 (Note: in addition to providing placement services for Education students, this office gathers and distributes information on employment opportunities in higher education, including teaching and administrative positions.).

ENGINEERING, 1150 Engineering Building, 262-3471.

FAMILY RESOURCES AND CONSUMER SCIENCES, Home Economics Building, 262-2608.

LAW, 131 Law Building, 262-7856.

NURSING, K6/214 Clinical Science Center, 263-5163 (employment information).

PHARMACY, 1336 Chamberlin Hall, 262-3717.

CAREER ADVISING AND PLACEMENT OFFICE, 905 University Avenue, Room 160, 262-3921. This office provides individual and group career advising and information, and schedules on-campus recruiting visits primarily for students in the College of Letters and Science and the School of Family Resources and Consumer Sciences. Students are urged to contact the office early in their academic careers for career guidance and information.

Vocational Counseling

Vocational and career testing and counseling are available from a number of different offices on campus. The offices listed below provide specific help and counseling to students who are concerned about careers and vocational decision-making. Students are also urged to consult with faculty members and with staff members in their academic's dean's office concerning career questions related to their academic programs.

UNIVERSITY COUNSELING SERVICE, 905 University Avenue, Suite 401, 262-1744. Maintains computer software and library materials related to career choice and planning, offers individual and group counseling as well as workshops for students concerned about vocational choices and decision-making, and administers vocational interest tests. Nominal fees are charged for some services.

CONTINUING EDUCATION SERVICES, 905 University Avenue, Suite 1, 263-6960. Provides vocational counseling and testing services for returning adult students.

THE FIRST DAY OF CLASS

As you approach your first class as a teaching assistant, it's very natural for you to be nervous. Even the most experienced teachers frequently report nervousness at the thought of meeting a new class at the beginning of the semester or before giving a lecture to a large class. Your concern is somewhat akin to stage fright and is quite natural. Part of your feelings are probably also excitement at teaching, for the first time, a subject in which you are interested; try to channel this surge of energy into your teaching. Remember that you were selected to be a teaching assistant because your department has reason to believe that you are well-qualified to teach, so you have cause to believe in your own abilities. Planning ahead and anticipating student questions will go a long way in enabling you to be an effective teacher as you approach your class on the first day. Most students will be willing to cooperate with you given the chance, and will be especially patient if you feel comfortable telling them this is your first experience teaching. But do not expect everything to go exactly as planned. The best classes have structure and some room for spontaneity as well.

The first day of class is important both in introducing your students to the content and structure of the course and in establishing its pace and tone. Bear in mind that, for many students, the first day of class presents an opportunity to decide whether or not the course is for them. You have the responsibility to see that they receive the information necessary to make a timely decision. The students will be concerned about the aims of the course, the material to be covered, instructor expectations, and the methods of evaluation that will be used. Some of this material may have been covered by the faculty member in charge of the course in the first lecture. Students are also interested in getting a feel for the less tangible elements of the course--for example, the instructor's style and approach to the subject and to the students, and the peer composition of the class. Here are some suggestions (although not all are appropriate to every type of teaching assistant assignment):

--Announce the title and number of the course as well as the section number. Make sure that only those who belong in the course are there.

--Introduce yourself. Write your name on the blackboard and tell students how you prefer to be addressed. Let them know your office hours and office phone number (and home phone number if you want students to be able to reach you at home). Let students know your policy about office hours (see section on office hours).

--Announce the course prerequisites as well as the perhaps less obvious necessary required background. Let students get a general idea of how much you expect them to know about the subject already. If appropriate, work sample problems that you would expect them to be able to solve already.

--It's important that you get to know your students as quickly as possible. You may want to ask students to write down on an index card their name, how they wish to be addressed, their year in school, their intended major, and where they can be reached. You may also gather additional information to help you learn

about their background for the course, special interests, etc. Some instructors ask students to introduce themselves to the rest of the class and say a little about their backgrounds or special experiences.

--Tell the students a little about yourself and your own background for the course. It may be especially important to tell students about your role as a teaching assistant. Remember that many freshmen have very little idea how college courses are structured and have perhaps never heard of a teaching assistant before, so it's important to let them know about your role in the course.

--Let students know what the goals of the course are and what the requirements are. If the professor in charge of the course hasn't already done so, this is the time to hand out the course outline or syllabus. Be prepared to discuss your policies regarding due dates, absences, grading, and expectations, because these are topics that will be very much on the minds of your students. If it is not possible for you to furnish detailed information at your first class meeting, assure students that you will provide such information soon.

--Make sure that students know what materials are required for the course and where they can be obtained. Bring copies of all texts so that students can see them. Be prepared to accept or reject alternate versions of standard texts if your course supervisor has approved.

--Give students an idea of what your classroom style will be like and what to expect of the time they spend in class. For example, let them know whether you intend to spend most of the time solving problems, discussing case studies, quizzing them on lecture material, etc. Also let them know how you plan to structure the class activities--do you expect students to do most of the discussing of the material? Do you plan to have them work in groups? Should they be taking notes?

--As important as all of the above are, make sure that you save time to actually start teaching. It's important to use the first day's flush of enthusiasm as effectively as possible to excite your students about the course. Don't dismiss the first class early--it can create a mistaken impression about your approach to the class. If students have not yet read or covered the material, use the time to point out what they should be paying attention to as they read; use the first assignment as an example for their future work in the course.

<u>Some tips on getting to know your students quickly</u>

--Take roll at the beginning of the first few class meetings so you can begin to associate names with faces. This is a good time to ask students how they prefer to be addressed. You can take roll out loud or silently to yourself later in the semester. It is a good idea to continue at least the silent roll taking throughout the semester so that you have a clear idea of the attendance record of each student.

--Return assignments to individual students. This may be done at the beginning of the class, but you may prefer to wait until near the end of the class--especially if you have a lot of material to cover. Use your own judgment.

--You may want to use a seating chart at the beginning of the semester to help you learn names more quickly; students can rearrange themselves by the third week or so if they want.

LECTURING

Teaching assistants are usually not given responsibility for large lecture type courses but most of you will lecture in the classroom at some point in the semester. The tips included here are intended to make the time and energy you spend lecturing as productive as possible for you and your students.

Preparation

Few people can give consistently good lectures by "winging it." The better prepared you are, the more likely your presentation is to accomplish its purpose. Here are some tips:

--Start by thinking about your objectives. What should your students learn from this lecture? How can their special needs and interests be included in your presentation? Is this material best presented through a lecture or is some other teaching technique more appropriate? In determining your objectives, you will often need to think about integrating your presentation with that of the faculty member in charge of the course.

--Make sure your topic is narrow enough to fit time constraints and the attention span of your students. Too much material presented at one time can confuse students instead of enlightening them. Don't try to include too many major points in your presentation and, after speaking on one topic for 10-15 minutes, make a definite break and move on to the next point. You can do this directly by summing up the first topic or point and introducing the next, or by taking a break for student questions or discussion.

--Think about the type of audio-visual equipment, handouts, or other supplementary teaching aids you may be using. If you're using a-v equipment, allow time to set it up before the beginning of class, be sure you know how to operate it correctly, and position it in such a way that students have no difficulties in seeing or hearing (see section on use of the blackboard and audio-visual equipment). Although students tend to learn more by taking their own notes rather than having them provided, handouts may be useful for presenting quantitative or complex material.

--**What about lecture notes?** People vary in the types of notes they use; practice will help you decide what is comfortable for you. Avoid simply reading a text that you have written. However, you will probably need to have some written guidelines; you may find it helpful to work from an outline.

--**How do I know how much time my presentation will take? What if there's not enough material to fill the time I've allotted?** In actuality, most instructors find that they don't have enough time to cover all the material they would have liked to, so don't worry. Plan ahead and perhaps rehearse your first few presentations so that if time runs short, you'll know what to cut. You may want to make a note to yourself that you'll cut out one of the examples or a segment of your talk if time looks tight. Be sure to leave time for a definite ending of your presentation and for student questions and discussion if appropriate. Try not to keep your students after the bell--their attention will be minimal and most of them have other commitments.

--**What's the best way to organize my presentation?** You'll find that most topics lend themselves best to a particular style of organization. Among the most common:

topical- divides subject up naturally into its constituent parts or subjects;
causal- uses patterns that interrelate causes and effects;
sequential- uses patterns that organize ideas either chronologically or spatially;
question and answer- uses questions about the topic to organize it;
elimination- eliminates some proposed solutions or questions to leave only your own for discussion;
problem-solving- organizes the lecture around a problem or problems to be solved.[1]

A basic rule of thumb in organizing a lecture is "Tell them what you're going to tell them, tell them, tell them what you told them." Let your students know what your objectives are, leave no doubt as to the material you're covering or its importance, and provide for a definite summary. Most successful presentations start up slowly and build energy and tempo as they move along. The end of your talk should provide students with a sense of closure.

--**Should I try to be objective about the topic?** It is appropriate to let students know which approach you find most valuable and why, but you should also be certain to let them know of alternative viewpoints.

--Bear in mind that if you want your students to prepare for class, you must provide them with some motivation for doing so. Covering exactly the same material which was already adequately presented in the textbook or in a previous presentation lends little encouragement for class preparation and/or keeping up with assigned reading. It will often be necessary for you to integrate your presentation with a lecture given by the faculty member in charge of the course. Covering course topics more fully than the text or previous lecture, providing students with accessible examples, and giving emphasis to the most important points rewards students who have taken the time to keep up with the course.

--You may find that the best time to begin to prepare a lecture is immediately after class. At least jotting down notes for the next class can be a helpful habit to acquire.

--Consider the style of your presentation. Avoid an overly scholarly presentation that may be appropriate for your peers but not for students in an introductory course. You should avoid talking down to your students, however; remember that they are adults and are there to develop their minds and their abilities.

1. Based on Bruce Gronbeck. The Articulate Person: A Guide to Everyday Public Speaking (Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman, and Company, 1975) and Wilbert McKeachie. Teaching Tips (7th edition: Lexington, MA: D.C., Heath & Company, 1978).

--An effective teacher avoids being the center of attention during every class. Students learn by doing; be sure to give them a chance to practice, to answer questions, and to handle complex problems or ideas.

Delivery

--Probably the single most beneficial thing you can do to improve your delivery is to view a videotape of your class. **You can arrange to have your class videotaped free of charge by the Labs for Recorded Instruction**, which permits you to control the use and disposition of the videotape. While videotaping your class, assure students that the taping is unrelated to their performance so that they will act as natural as possible.

--Start by developing a friendly rapport with your students, mainly by supplying an appropriate introduction and context. Let the students know of any ground rules that apply--for instance, should they feel free to interrupt with questions while you're speaking, or would you prefer that all questions be held until the end of the class?

--Voice and speech. Probably the most important thing is to avoid a monotone presentation. Vary the pitch and tempo of your speech naturally for emphasis. Speak loudly enough for everyone in the room to hear you and be sure that you are not speaking too rapidly. Avoid overuse of any particular word or phrase such as "really," "very," "obviously," "you know," etc. If you need to pause to consider a point, do so silently rather than filling in with nonsense syllables such as "er" or "um." Check to see that you do not intersperse your talk with such nonsense syllables regularly. Convey enthusiasm--if you don't seem to find the material interesting, it's doubtful your students will.

--Body language. Perhaps the best guideline is to be natural. Don't be afraid to gesture as you would in normal speech, as this will help to hold your students' interest. At the same time, however, refrain from repetitive or exaggerated motions that will distract students from the content of your presentation. Avoid distracting behavior such as continually taking off and putting on glasses, twirling a piece of chalk, playing with a paper clip, etc.

--Eye contact. Strive to maintain as much eye contact as possible with your students. Eye contact helps to keep the students actively interested and gives you an immediate sense of how your presentation is going. Do students look puzzled, interested, harried, bored? With practice, you will find yourself noticing and responding to these nonverbal cues while you are speaking.

LEADING DISCUSSION SECTIONS (ESPECIALLY IN THE HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES)

Whatever your specific teaching duties, you will probably be involved at some point in conducting group discussions. If you are a teaching assistant in a course with a lecture/discussion format, leading discussions will be your primary teaching responsibility. If you are assigned to teach your own section of an undergraduate course under the supervision of a faculty member, you are likely to use discussion techniques in your class along with exercises for developing skill and competence. Lab teaching assistants and teaching assistants with still other responsibilities may find that they occasionally need to conduct discussion groups with their students. Whatever your specific role as a teaching assistant, you will sometimes want to involve students actively through discussion.

Although good discussions often appear to be spontaneous, they actually require careful preparation on the part of the instructor. The first thing you must do is consider your goals carefully, both for the individual class session and for the course in general. Do you want your students to apply new skills, learn to solve problems, analyze arguments or texts critically, or give more thought to new subject matter? These goals are not mutually exclusive but they require different approaches to discussion by both you and your students. In order to be effective, goals must be shared. Let your students know, at least in general terms, what purpose discussion serves in your class. Sometimes you may want to involve students in setting these goals. You also need to give some thought to the composition of the class in planning your discussion. What are the levels and range of skill levels within the class? Are your students majors or non-majors, freshmen or seniors? Why are they taking the class? How is the course relevant to their lives, goals, and interests?

Next, you need to determine what your general approach to leading a discussion will be. This will depend partly on your personal style and partly on the subject at hand. You may decide to be relatively directive, asking most of the questions yourself and intervening when necessary, or you may let students determine the course of the discussion. Consistency on your part is important if students are to feel comfortable about participating. If you normally are very dominant in guiding the discussion, for example, don't expect students to follow up readily on one another's comments.

In order for any discussion to succeed, students must have information adequate to allow for active participation. This can be accomplished in many ways. First, you should make clear to students the purpose of discussion and emphasize that assigned material will be covered. It is often helpful to distribute study questions to students for their use in class preparation, or to assign the preparation of discussion questions to students in order to guarantee more student involvement. You may also want to refresh students' minds by giving a brief review of the subject under consideration, either by giving a short presentation or by asking a series of factual questions. You may want to take a few minutes to canvass your students (either orally or in writing) about the topics that they are finding most troublesome or would most like to discuss. Additionally, bear in mind that materials "in hand" are often the most useful in stimulating discussion--the actual text of a poem or a photograph of an archaeological artifact is easier to discuss than readings done before class.

As a discussion leader, you will find yourself responsible for and aware of three different levels of the class simultaneously.[2] The content of the discussion is the most obvious of these levels--you need to keep in mind the material you wish to cover, the importance of some topics and questions in relation to others, and the goals you have in mind for the discussion.

A discussion section is also a process, an almost independent organism with its own goals and dynamics. This level is the "how" of the discussion. A good discussion leader plans for and is aware of this level of the discussion section. What is the pacing of the discussion? Do some students tend to dominate? How can others be encouraged to participate? Is the discussion becoming too abstract or anecdotal? The discussion leader needs to plan how each question or topic will be discussed and then be flexible in adapting this general plan to circumstances as the discussion progresses.

On still another level, the discussion leader must also be aware of and prepare for the interpersonal context of the discussion. Each discussion section is unique because of the individuals involved in it. How does one prepare for and utilize this aspect of the discussion? Knowing your students and training yourself to be aware of their personal styles and patterns of interaction are the best ways to make the most of this aspect of a discussion. You should be able to answer questions about your class such as: Which students find it easy to connect the concrete and the abstract? What are the class alliances--males versus females, pragmatists versus idealists? Who needs to be particularly encouraged to participate and in what way? The more fully you can answer such questions, the more likely you will be able to guide your class in an effective discussion. The goal of becoming aware of the interpersonal context of the discussion is not to build stereotypes of your students or to manipulate the discussion, but rather to be aware of personal and interaction patterns at work and their role in the discussion. In fact, if you continue to ask yourself such questions on a conscious level, you will probably avoid the unconscious stereotyping which hampers good teaching.

Asking Questions

Skill in asking the right types of questions at the right time is an important component of leading a successful discussion and, more generally, in gauging your students' progress and stimulating their interest.

A discussion leader should have a planned series of questions, sometimes called a "questioning strategy." The central purpose of your questions is to give focus to the discussion. Usually, an effective questioning strategy starts with rather concrete, easily answered questions. Important at the beginning of the discussion, such questions may also be useful at various points in the class period. Relatively unthreatening and easily answered questions such as these may be conducive to class participation for shy students, help make transitions from one part of the discussion to the next, and, sometimes, arouse a class that seems to be dozing. In order to encourage active discussion, it's best to use open-ended concrete questions such as, "What are some of the most important things you remember about Weber's views of organizations?" rather than dead-end

2. Some of the material in this section is based upon Thomas Kasulis, "Questioning," in Margaret Gullette, ed., The Art and Craft of Teaching (Cambridge, MA: Harvard-Danforth Center for Teaching and Learning, 1982), pp. 37-48.

questions with only one correct answer such as, "Who is responsible for much of our modern thinking about bureaucracies?" Such questions help to get the discussion started; they also serve to refresh students' minds about the topic under discussion.

The second level of questions in a questioning strategy is more interpretive, requiring responses that go beyond the letter of the text or subject in order to relate, criticize, justify, or apply the ideas under discussion. While concrete questions require mainly the retrieval of information, interpretive questions require evaluation, analysis, and synthesis. Such questions may be specific (Why did the Ch'ing Dynasty's attitudes toward the West contribute to its downfall?) or general (Why did the Ch'ing Dynasty fail?). Specific questions allow the discussion leader to guide the discussion toward a particular goal; more general questions encourage the sharing of perspectives by the entire group. Most discussions will probably alternate between these two types of interpretive questions.

Still another level of questioning is divergent questioning, which calls upon students to make predictions or develop a theory or generalizations building upon data and concepts used in previous segments of the discussion. The use of such questions requires great skill on the part of the discussion leader if the discussion is to avoid becoming merely an undirected bull session. This sort of discussion is possible only when the groundwork has been carefully laid by earlier questions. An example of a divergent question is, "We've discussed the role of women in national politics. How do you think this role might change in the next twenty years?"

Bear in mind that your questions should also serve to encourage students to interact with one another. Asking students to follow up on or respond to other students' remarks is necessary if the discussion is going to involve the class as a whole rather than just you and individual students.

The ending of a discussion is as important as its beginning. Provide for a summary, either through use of a question or a series of questions focused on the conclusion, or by asking one or two students to give a summary of the discussion.

What if no one answers my questions? Always ask the question first. Wait and then call upon someone or take a volunteer. If you mention a name and then ask the question, you are more apt to lose the attention of the others who know they will not have to answer. Be sure you give students enough time to respond. This "wait time" is very important. Train yourself to wait at least 30 seconds before trying another tack. If no one in the class starts to respond by that time, you may want to rephrase the question or split it into separate parts. Avoid a fishing expedition, though. If it's clear no one knows the answer, give it yourself. If this happens to you consistently, you need to give thought to the questioning strategies you are using.

When students ask a question, try to help them answer it themselves by breaking it into smaller parts or restructuring it. Encourage students to try to answer each others' questions. This sort of give and take should be a natural and encouraged part of the discussion. If you do not know the answer to a question, don't bluff and don't ignore it. Say you will find out, find out, and then report back to the class at its next meeting. In the same vein, everyone makes mistakes and you should feel free to admit past errors to your students.

Encouraging Student Participation: A Potpourri of Ideas

--At the beginning of class pose a question or problem and list every idea that students come up with on the board. After this "brainstorming" session, use the rest of the class to synthesize, relate, and judge the ideas critically.

--Have students suggest topics for discussion at the beginning of the class. These can be problems, basic ideas, or interesting themes. List the suggestions and, if appropriate, have students select the topic or topics they wish to cover.

--Divide the group into smaller groups. This technique can be very useful if the smaller groups are given a narrow topic for discussion, a specific problem to solve, a specific case to study, or one side of a debate to prepare. If your directions guiding small group work are imprecise, students may have a difficult time structuring their group work appropriately. You may want to assign students to a particular group for several sessions or for an ongoing project, or use spontaneous groups for class sessions or parts of sessions. Often, it is useful to have the smaller group choose one of the participants to report back to the whole group. What is the most effective size of a small group? This question is the basis for a whole sub-branch of applied psychology in and of itself. Some experts think five or seven is the most effective size for a small group and that odd numbered groups are generally more effective than even numbered ones.

--With some groups, you may wish to assign individual students or a group of students to be responsible for the discussion of a particular topic. Such assignments may be long-term and formal, or done within a single class period. Have students hold a panel or give a presentation on a particular topic and then try to answer their classmates' questions. As discussion leader, you serve as moderator and may need to step in with correct information or to pose questions of your own. Such activities can serve as effective skill-builders for the students involved, but they also tend to shift responsibility for a topic to the student or group assigned to it, with other students finding it less necessary to be prepared for class. Some instructors also find that such techniques do not make for the most efficient use of limited class time. You should consider these factors carefully when deciding whether or not such activities are appropriate for one of your classes.

Group Dynamics

--If at all possible, create a seating arrangement conducive to discussion. Placing desks, chairs, or tables in a circular or horseshoe arrangement facilitates the give and take of discussion since students can see one another when they talk. Students are more likely to get to know one another and to stay attentive throughout the class period in a face-to-face seating arrangement. If you plan on using varying discussion techniques, such as small group and whole group discussion, you will need a flexible environment in which the furniture can be easily moved around. A round table encourages active participation by all; at rectangular tables, those seated at the ends of the table tend to dominate the discussion. Where you sit also makes a difference. If you are at the front of the room, you tend to be perceived of as the group's leader. Seated at a round table, you are perceived of more as a simple participant. If you can, check out your room before the semester starts; if it seems that your class will not function well in it, talk to the department secretary about the possibility of switching rooms.

--Remember that as the leader of the group, your actions determine to a large extent the attitude that students will show for one another. If you want to encourage your class to engage in a common learning experience which is valuable to all, you must show respect for, and encourage active participation by, all of your students.

--It's important to provide positive reinforcement for students' contributions. Such reinforcement may be as simple as a nod of the head, a smile, or an encouraging or positive comment. Remember, though, that continual positive reinforcement of the same type is much like no reinforcement at all, and that wrong or misleading student responses must be corrected or clarified as soon as possible.

TEACHING THE LABORATORY SECTION

A wide variety of College courses utilize laboratory learning experiences. Labs in the biological and physical sciences generally provide students the opportunity to perform experiments related to course material and to gain experience in the use of relevant equipment. In the social sciences and humanities, lab sections might afford students the opportunity to learn directly about methodology and computer techniques. A lab teaching assistant needs a wide variety of skills, including lecturing and discussion skills. In labs with potential for student injury, safety skills are also very important; you must know the location of first aid materials and treatment and procedures for getting immediate emergency assistance. Students should receive specific instructions for carrying out the laboratory procedures safely.

Preparation

The single most important thing you can do to ensure a well-run lab is to be well prepared. At the beginning of the semester, you should become familiar with the lab facilities and storeroom so time won't be lost later looking for necessary equipment or supplies. You should also become familiar with departmental procedures for the setting up and dismantling of lab facilities and become acquainted with personnel who are responsible for your lab or for the provision of lab equipment and materials. You should also learn where to turn when equipment needs to be repaired or receive preventive maintenance.

In terms of preparing for a particular lab you should be sure that you are familiar with it and, if possible, you may want to perform the entire lab exercise yourself (preferably with the lab manual). Note those sections of the lab directions or procedures that may prove the most confusing to students. Think about the theory on which the lab work is based, and consider how it is linked to the lecture section of the course and how it fits in with overall course goals. You may want to prepare a short board presentation to help students connect the lab with material covered in the lecture. If the project is one which is connected with the broader goals of the course but is relatively independent of the lecture material, you will want to point this out to the students, telling them how it ties in. Student unfamiliarity with equipment or procedures may lead to frustration, confusion, and loss of effective lab time. To prevent this, you may wish to assign appropriate reading or provide relevant handouts to the students before the lab session.

The First Lab

This class session is important, since it is the time when students gain basic familiarity with the lab's physical setup and is the time when ground rules for the semester are established. You should:

--Explain to students why the lab section of the course is important, how it fits in with the overall goals of the course, and what skills students can expect to develop through their lab experience.

--Set the tone for the class. Lab sections are informal but must remain relatively structured if the lab is going to progress smoothly and if appropriate safety procedures are to be allowed. Let your students know what is expected of them in terms of conduct while in the lab.

--Let students know about any material or equipment they must purchase, such as a laboratory notebook. Take care of locker assignments, if necessary, and introduce students to the basic facilities and procedures of the lab.

--Explain to students what you expect in terms of preparation for the lab and let them know how, and approximately how often, you will test this preparation. Inform students what is required in terms of lab reports, be explicit in explaining the criteria on which reports will be judged, and inform students of your policies concerning due dates. Also explain clearly what the grading procedures for the lab will be and how these fit in with the overall grading procedures for the course. Inform students of any policies concerning individual versus group work. Provide them with information about recommended reference sources, tutorial help available, etc.

The Lab Session

Usually, you will need to take some time at the beginning of the lab to introduce the experiment or project. Although you won't want to present a long lecture, you will need to remind students of the purpose of the exercise, show them how to handle any equipment with which they may be unfamiliar, clarify procedural points that may be confusing, emphasize appropriate safety precautions, if necessary, and point out any interesting historical aspects. You should also give students some time guidelines for the various components of the exercise. You may also want to take this time to determine whether or not your students are adequately prepared to perform the exercise; this can be done by asking specific questions, administering a quiz, etc. Students often need to be reminded of exactly which observations and experimental data need to be recorded, and they should be warned of particularly crucial steps in the procedure. If an experiment or project will extend over more than one laboratory period, explain exactly where the procedure can be interrupted, what materials and specimens must be stored, and the conditions needed to ensure that the procedures may be successfully continued in the next laboratory period.

While students are actually conducting the experiment or working on the project, your primary role is a facilitating one. You will probably want to circulate about the class to give assistance and answer any questions that arise. You may also want to ask students questions to determine what they do or do not understand, either about the work at hand or its larger scientific importance. Also, by asking questions you will stimulate the students to go beyond the mere acts of carrying out laboratory procedures and perceive the significance of the observations and measurements, the possibility of experimental error, and the inherent limitations of the lab procedures. As a lab teaching assistant, you have the opportunity for a large degree of involvement with student learning. Few teaching situations allow for as much personalized interaction with your students as labs do. If you notice that more than a few students are experiencing the same problem, stop the class and point out the problem and its solution. You are already aware that a lab is not always a quiet or orderly environment. If students are actively engaged in their work, you are likely to hear talking throughout the room.

Occasionally some laboratory equipment will fail to operate properly. The problem may range from complete breakdown to less serious conditions such as inaccurate calibration, leaks, noisy responses, balky computers, etc. Be familiar with the procedures you should follow to obtain emergency repairs. Also be familiar with, and explain to the students, the course policies

concerning make-up periods or use of another student's data when equipment failure has occurred. Your attitude is important. Though it is difficult to convey this truth to your students, an experiment which fails can be a learning experience.

Toward the end of the lab session, you may wish to reconvene the class as a whole or make sure that you touch base with individual students or groups of students. Let students tell you what happened and why, answer any remaining questions, and reinforce any points you feel are particularly important.

TEACHING YOUR OWN SECTION OF A COURSE

Teaching your own section of a course under faculty supervision is possibly the most challenging, and potentially most rewarding, teaching assignment you will be given as a teaching assistant. Since many of the skills you will need to be an effective teacher in this environment are discussed in other sections of this Manual, only a few tips particular to the teaching of your own section of a course are included here.

Teaching your own section of a course requires substantial planning at the beginning of the semester. Be sure that you have consulted thoroughly with your faculty supervisor. Departments vary greatly in the amount of latitude given a teaching assistant in charge of a course section and you must first develop a clear understanding of your responsibilities. For instance, how much freedom do you have in the choice of course materials? Is one textbook used by all sections of the course or are you expected to make a choice among several possible texts? What are the goals of the course--are students expected to develop particular skills or to gain an understanding of specific concepts? Are you expected to develop your own course syllabus? What about grading--do all students in the course take the same examinations or are you responsible for creating some or all of your own testing instruments? What is your responsibility for the final assignment of student grades?

The development of a general plan for using class time is probably necessary. You are likely to use a combination of lecture, discussion, and drill or other skill-building exercises. How much time should be devoted to each? The answer to this will vary with the course you are teaching. You may find that it is very easy to start lecturing without leaving time for other activities. This tendency should be avoided in most situations. Rather, since your class is small, try to take advantage of the situation by providing ample time for discussion and/or practice by your students.

TEACHING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

A few specific tips for teaching a foreign language are included here, since this teaching environment places some special demands upon the instructor. In many foreign language departments the syllabus, requirements, and exams for all students enrolled in the course are set by the course supervisor. The teaching assistant, then, is responsible for ensuring that the students in his or her section develop required skills and knowledge, and is expected to follow the general course outline quite carefully.

In teaching a foreign language, it is especially important to be aware of course objectives. Departments may vary in the amount of emphasis they place on the development of various skills such as reading, speaking, or listening ability in their introductory courses. It is possible that some skills are considered more important at a given point in the curriculum than at others. Discuss both explicit and implicit goals of foreign language teaching in your department and course with your course supervisor.

Beyond the need for clarity about overall course objectives, foreign language instructors must, perhaps to a larger extent than teachers in other disciplines, have a class plan clearly in mind for each class session. There are a wide variety of concepts, skills, and strategies that must be both presented and practiced daily. You may find it helpful to develop a personal timetable to map out the ways in which you will spend your time in class. For example, you may decide to allot a portion of the class time to review, a portion to drill, and a portion to free conversation.

There is room for a great deal of variation and flexibility in terms of the types of exercises and classroom activities you can use. Indeed, foreign language teaching allows for, and demands, creative thinking on the part of the instructor, and foreign language instructors must perhaps "perform" more than their counterparts in other disciplines. In beginning foreign language classes, it is essential that the instructor constantly work to foster students' interest and motivation. This is best accomplished by an instructor who can demonstrate a high level of energy and unflagging enthusiasm and who utilizes a wide variety of teaching techniques. For example, you may have the students break up into small groups for conversation or drill while you circulate among the groups to monitor their progress. Vary your drill patterns to provide for some spontaneity and surprise. Humor, if not directed at students' learning, is often an effective teaching tool. You can use audio-visual aids of all sorts from slides to newspapers or cartoons. Use dialogues and a variety of play-acting situations which require some thought and encourage practice. Material that is personalized to fit your students' lives and interests will provide motivation and will also allow students the opportunity to get to know one another better. A successful foreign language class requires a high degree of interaction between and among the teacher and all of the students, and you need to develop patterns that are not readily observable to assure that all students get called upon in the session.

It is, of course, important to provide praise and encouragement to beginning foreign language students and you should always be ready to praise a good effort. Remember, though, that the same words of praise used indiscriminately time and again have the same effect as no praise at all. Your goal should be to maximize your students' learning time and minimize your own.

Make sure that you give students adequate time to formulate responses. Bear in mind that learning to communicate in another language means learning to ask questions as well as learning to answer them.

As someone who is now fluent in at least one language other than your native language, you may have difficulty remembering the immense frustration and stress that accompanies foreign language learning for many individuals. The foreign language instructor must do all in her or his power to make the atmosphere in the foreign language classroom one in which trial and error is welcome and expected. You can make your students fear failure less and learn more if you make it clear, both verbally and nonverbally, that mistakes are a necessary part of the learning process. It's especially important to be alert to nonverbal signals that signify confusion or frustration. Make it a habit to check for blank stares, rustling papers, and the like. Ask students to provide proof that they are following you. If you simply ask if they are, the answer will invariably be a positive one. Make it clear to your students that it's ok to ask questions or admit that they don't understand what's going on.

Remember that the Labs for Recorded Instruction can assist both you and your students. Make sure you learn about the services provided by the Labs, and encourage students to use Lab facilities.

OFFICE HOURS

Individual conferences with your students during office hours may be among the most educationally and personally rewarding contacts for both you and your students. How, though, do you encourage students to utilize your office hours without creating such a deluge of requests for individual conferences that you can't possibly meet them within the time allotted? For many teaching assistants this presents a dilemma which the following tips may help you to resolve:

--What is the best way to schedule my office hours? You should try to ensure that the scheduling of your office hours will accommodate the majority of your students. If possible, do not schedule your office hours all at the same time (such as 1:00-2:00 on Tuesdays and Thursdays) or all on the same day, so that your schedule will enable the majority of your students to come and see you during your office hours. Obviously, it won't be possible to schedule office hours so that all of your students are free at those times. If it is absolutely impossible for a student to meet with you during your regularly scheduled office hours, try to make arrangements to meet at another mutually convenient time.

--How do I encourage students to visit during office hours? On the individual level, a direct invitation, such as suggesting on a paper that a student come to see you, has a very good response rate. In fact, some instructors report that they have never had a student not show up after a direct request. Some teaching assistants require that all of their students make an appointment during office hours near the beginning of the semester to discuss a particular assignment or aspect of the course. Generally, once a student has come to see you during office hours and has found the experience to be a positive one, he or she will be more likely to drop by again. Some instructors have found that posting grades or arranging for papers to be returned on or near their office door can serve to encourage students to drop in. When announcing your office hours make it clear that you welcome student visits.

--Once a student has come to my office, how do I make the best use of my own and the student's time? Perhaps the most important element is to be perceived by the student as relaxed and approachable. Many students feel that you are engaged in something which is much more important than their problem or question, and are quite intimidated by the very idea of visiting their instructor. Your attitude toward the student's visit is apparent in many ways. Do you simply let the student stand there or do you ask her or him to sit down? Do you help the student to relax by chatting for a few minutes? Do you tend to break off a conversation with the student to hail a colleague passing in the hall and start a separate conversation?

After a few words of greeting, encourage the student to tell you why he or she has come to see you. Perhaps you feel you know already, but it is a good idea to make sure. You always need to listen carefully and may sometimes need to read between the lines--is the student uncertain about understanding a particular concept or trying to decide whether or not to drop the course?

--What are my responsibilities toward students within the context of office hours? This is something that you need to think about at the beginning of the semester or you may find yourself bogged down by requests for conferences which you cannot possibly meet. First, what kinds of assistance with the course are appropriate? It is appropriate to answer students' questions about assignments, grading, and progress; to review individual exams and papers; and to discuss

additional readings or resources that might be helpful. It may be appropriate to go over some concepts covered in class if they are particularly problematic or if the student missed the class for a legitimate reason. A good rule of thumb may be that if the student is generally capable of handling the work in your course but has a question or problem related to aspects of it, it is part of your responsibility within your office hours to offer the student assistance.

--What about other concerns that bring students to my office? Some students may come to see you about personal or academic problems, since you may be the person on campus with whom they feel they have the most personal contact; other students may have problems or concerns that surface in the course of your discussion. Bear in mind that it is not your responsibility to provide personal or academic counseling or remedial tutoring. In most instances, there are services at the departmental, college, or campus level that can provide professional or peer assistance. If a student is wondering about further course choices or the possibility of majoring in your department, she or he can speak with the departmental adviser or the department's representative to the Faculty Advising Service. If a student appears to have emotional problems, contact the student's Academic Dean's Office or the Dean of Students Office. If a student appears in need of remedial help with writing, make a referral to the Writing Lab. If the student seems to need tutoring in the course, suggest that she or he contact the GUTS/HASH program. For questions dealing with life on campus or in the city, refer students to the Campus Assistance Center. In short, you can help students immeasurably by getting to know good points of referral, but you are not expected to and should not undertake the role of personal or academic counselor on your own. See the section on campus resources for more information about points of referral.

--What do I do about students who routinely drop by outside of office hours without an appointment? Offer the student a choice of either a few minutes then or a regular conference either during your scheduled office hours or another mutually convenient time. You may be quite firm about your availability during (and only during) regular office hours and scheduled appointments; otherwise you could find matters getting out of hand. As a student and a teacher, you will find yourself constantly torn between completing your own work and meeting the needs of your students. You must attempt to maintain a balance. For example, you cannot shut yourself away in the library to finish writing a paper at the end of the semester and cancel your office hours at the very time when your students need you most. On the other hand, you most not allow your teaching responsibilities to jeopardize your own studies and future career advancement in the field.

USE OF THE BLACKBOARD AND AUDIO-VISUAL EQUIPMENT

BLACKBOARD TECHNIQUES

What you write on the blackboard signals "important" to students--if you were to look at your students' notes, you might well find them to be nearly an exact copy of what you wrote on the blackboard that day. Therefore, it's important that you develop blackboard techniques that will enable your students to follow your presentation effectively. Some tips:

--Write large, legibly, and in a uniform size. Go to the back of the room after one of your classes and check to see whether you can read what you have written.

--Always begin with a clean blackboard--leaving material on the board from an earlier class will be distracting to students.

--Plan ahead in your use of the blackboard in conjunction with a lesson. Be selective, using the board only for those points you want to emphasize. Use headings and isolate and identify basic components--this will help students in organizing and studying from their notes.

--Don't work with an eraser in hand. If you keep changing what you have written, it will frustrate students who are trying to take notes. Don't erase until all of your available blackboard space is full. If a three panel blackboard is available to you, use the middle panel first. Push it up and use the front board next, allowing information to remain visible as long as possible. On other types of blackboards, begin writing at the top of one panel, move down that panel, and then go on to the next.

--Never write an incorrect statement on the board without clearly identifying it as such.

--If you are doing problem solving at the board, write out solutions exactly as you would expect students to. If you omit computations, write that you have done so.

--As much as possible, try not to stand in front of what you are writing while you are writing it. Stand back from the board after you have finished so that everyone can read what you've written.

--Try not to talk with your back to students while you're writing on the board. It may seem like a time-saver to try to talk and write at the same time, but it will make it harder for your students to hear and understand you as well as increase the possibility that you will make mistakes.

--You may want to designate a section of the board to be used routinely to announce homework, exams, etc.

--Press chalk firmly against the blackboard and never write with the chalk perpendicular to the board. Breaking chalk in half will usually help to prevent squeaking.

USE OF AUDIO-VISUAL EQUIPMENT

Check with your departmental secretary about equipment availability and departmental procedures. Also contact the Labs for Recorded Instruction and the Bureau of Audio-Visual Instruction with questions about audio-visual resources. If a rental or other charge is involved, be sure to get departmental authorization for it in advance. The Labs for Recorded Instruction may be able to assist you in providing audio-visual materials for out-of-class enrichment. Contact the Labs for more information.

In considering the use of various types of audio-visual equipment in your class, think about the ideas you want to present and your objectives in doing so. As a general rule, use such teaching aids only if they enable you to present your ideas more clearly and efficiently than you could without them. Below is information about some of the more common types of audio-visual equipment.

Overhead Projectors (Transparencies)

Some instructors use overhead projectors as a substitute for, or as a better version of, the traditional blackboard. Transparencies as a substitute for blackboards are particularly good in large lecture settings, since they afford students in all areas of the lecture hall an opportunity to see material that the instructor wishes to present in written form. With small classes, such as those teaching assistants are most likely to be involved with, the overhead projector is less necessary as a means of showing what the instructor is writing. However, there may be instances in which you will want to use an overhead projector in a small class setting. First, you may find it difficult to write legibly on a blackboard, in which case you'll be doing your students a favor by using transparencies. Second, there may be times when you want to prepare a transparency ahead of time in order to present complex or detailed material. In addition, use of transparencies may be as effective as writing on the blackboard, but will require less of your time in class. If you are likely to use the transparency again in another class, it is probably worthwhile to produce one.

There are several ways of producing transparencies for overhead projectors ranging from simply writing on a transparency sheet with a felt-tipped pen to purchasing commercially produced transparencies. It is generally quite easy to produce transparencies from previously typed or xeroxed material. Check with your department secretary about procedures in your department. Some tips:

--Don't use too many transparencies in a single class. A dozen for a 50 minute class is probably more than enough.

--Leave plenty of white space on the transparency. Your students will be able to absorb only so much information at a time.

--Many instructors find it helpful to present only pertinent portions of the transparency at any one time. If you're using the transparency to outline a lecture as you give it, you may want to uncover only appropriate portions as you go along, rather than simply showing the whole transparency at once. The technique of uncovering information bit by bit can also help in holding students' attention.

--Think of innovative ways to use transparencies. For example, you can prepare transparencies featuring an article from the newspaper, portions of student compositions, etc.

--If it is in your control, you may wish to dim the lights slightly in the projection area. In classrooms with multiple light switches, this can be accomplished by turning off the lights for a third or half of the room. Try not to make the room too dark, though. It isn't necessary and may lull students to sleep, as well as making it hard for them to take notes.

--Practice using an overhead projector until you are able to operate it effectively while still maintaining eye contact with your students.

--Mounting transparencies horizontally, rather than vertically, keeps projected images high enough so that all students can see clearly.

Slides

In disciplines concerned with the visual arts, slides are a necessary teaching aid. However, instructors in a variety of academic disciplines find slides useful for showing detail, heightening student interest, and translating abstract concepts into visual images.

Slides are generally inexpensive and easy to use. Slide series, often programmed with sound, can be very useful, but are time-consuming to produce. The use of such series generally requires advance preparation and makes it difficult to change the order of parts of your presentation.

Films

Films can be useful in a wide variety of teaching and learning environments. For example, they may be used to introduce students to the sounds and sights of a foreign culture, to add meaning to a study of history or literature, or to show students proper lab safety techniques. However, films are relatively expensive, either to rent or to purchase, tend to become quickly outdated, and may necessitate the use of large blocks of valuable class time. In addition, projection equipment is often cumbersome and expensive, and trained operators are required to prevent mechanical breakdowns. These considerations generally point to the use of films as a learning device in a lecture hall or for multiple class sections. The fact that films require a darkened room may make it difficult for students to take notes.

Audio Materials

Audio materials come in a wide variety of forms and can serve many purposes in the classroom and for individualized learning. Work with audio materials is essential in some disciplines, such as music and foreign languages. Audio materials such as tapes and cassettes can also be used to enrich other types of classes. For example, sound recordings of speeches or readings of poetry by the author can enrich and personalize students' understanding.

Video Tapes

The use of videotapes has become an important teaching tool. Their flexibility and relative simplicity makes them appropriate in a wide variety of educational settings. For example, tapes can be used to present a class with a role-playing situation, or to provide students an opportunity to assess their own presentations or discussions.

EXAMS AND QUIZZES

(Note: Departments vary in the responsibility given to teaching assistants for the writing of exams and quizzes. Be sure to work closely with your course supervisor.)

Exams and quizzes can promote learning in several ways, although they are most commonly looked upon as a way of assessing student learning as it relates to a body of material. Good exams support other educational goals as well, however. They serve as a way of assessing the instructor's progress, providing her or him with valuable feedback on students' understanding of the course material, and as a motivating force for students in applying themselves to the learning tasks at hand. As Robert Ebel puts it: "What a student studies is largely determined by what he expects to be tested on. How he studies is influenced by the kind of a test he expects. How hard he works depends in part on how soon he expects to be tested."[3] Exams, then, can also be helpful in focusing the efforts of both instructor and students on those aspects of the material most central to course goals, and should provide students with a valuable learning experience in and of themselves. A good exam will force students to think about course materials in ways not presented by the lectures or texts. Exams and quizzes can serve as both diagnostic and assessment tools. Often, giving students a "pretest" at the beginning of the semester will be a valuable way of gauging existing student competency levels and planning material to be covered in the course.

To serve these valuable purposes, however, exams and quizzes must meet the criteria of validity and reliability. Validity means that the exam measures what it is intended to measure. That is, it means that a Chemistry instructor is measuring knowledge of Chemistry and not knowledge of baseball. Validity also requires that an exam be appropriate. For example, in a class where application of concepts is the goal, ability to apply concepts should be measured on the exam. Appropriateness also means that main points and objectives, rather than trivialities, are included on an exam and that topics are included in rough proportion to the amount of time spent on the topic in class. It would be inappropriate, for example, to have an exam consist just of one essay question on a topic mentioned only in passing during the course. Reliability refers to the consistency of student response over time and over items; if a testing instrument is unreliable, differences in student performance on an exam can be attributed to random chance rather than varying levels of knowledge about the subject.

There are a number of statistically based measures for determining both the validity and reliability of testing instruments. The use of such statistical measures is appropriate if you are writing an exam that will be given to a large

3. Robert Ebel, "Using Examinations to Promote Learning," in Russell Cooper, ed. The Two Ends of the Log (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1958), p. 55.

number of students or if the exam will serve as a prototype for future exams.[4] For reasons of time and practicality, however, teachers are often not in a position to spend large blocks of time formally evaluating the validity and reliability of classroom exams and quizzes, especially if the testing instrument will only be used once or if the group to which it will be administered is relatively small. There are, fortunately, several basic techniques that will aid you in your efforts to ensure test validity and reliability. Perhaps the most obvious way is to show the exam to colleagues and ask their opinion or even ask them to take it themselves. Second, make sure that you include enough items on the exam since this serves as a means of counterbalancing random errors of interpretation and response.

In preparing the exam, think first about your objectives for the course and/or this particular unit of the course. Then, target exam items to these objectives. Generally, it will help if you write items targeted to specific sub-objectives rather than to broader objectives. For instance, writing 10 pairs of exam items about specific sub-objectives will be both easier to write and more reliable than 20 separate questions all aimed at the same broad course or unit objective. Another way to increase test reliability is to design your exam in a way that makes it possible to discriminate between student performance levels. You should be able to identify those items so easy that they are only included to motivate students from those of intermediate difficulty and those that challenge even the most advanced students. As a general rule of thumb, tests designed at levels of difficulty in which about 50%-75% of the test-takers answer an item successfully tend to be the most reliable.

Preparation and Construction

The objectives of the course, including the kinds of information and skills emphasized in the class, should be at the forefront of your mind as you prepare an exam or quiz. Many inferior exams are really the result of ambiguous or poorly thought-out course objectives. As you think about writing an exam, there are several questions that need to be answered. Among the most common:

--How long should the test be? You need to juggle the desire to be as thorough as possible, entailing the inclusion of many items, with the need to fit rather strictly within set time limits. Students can usually answer a single multiple choice, matching, or true-false item in a minute or less, although some multiple choice questions may take considerably longer depending on the type of material being covered. Short answer questions should require about two minutes. Ten to fifteen minutes may be required for a restricted response essay and a half hour or more for an extended response essay.

--How often should I test my students? There are few good reasons to administer only a single exam in most undergraduate courses. Students need and feel more comfortable with regular feedback. If you administer only a final exam, you are losing much of testing's potential to serve as a learning device, and are instead using the exam only as an assessment device. On the other hand, over-use of quizzes and exams means that valuable class time is lost and can result in a loss of student motivation. More than four or five major exams are probably too many. Weekly or biweekly quizzes can be helpful since they serve as an "early warning" device for students experiencing difficulty, but if given frequently they should be kept as short as possible, say 10-15 minutes.

4. If the use of such statistical techniques appears to be an appropriate concern for you in your teaching duties, you may wish to consult the works by Tuckman, Ebel, and Thorndike which are included in the bibliography.

--**Should I announce exams and quizzes ahead of time?** Definitely. Most of the learning from an exam is done in the studying for it. Even with quizzes, "pop" quizzes are probably less effective learning devices than quizzes for which students have had an opportunity to prepare. Major exams should ideally be announced to students at the beginning of the semester (perhaps on the course syllabus) so that they will have an opportunity to plan study schedules. In any event, a major exam should be announced in class (perhaps more than once) at least one week ahead of time. It is appropriate also to discuss with students the exam's probable format such as multiple choice, essay, or a combination of different formats.

Types of Questions

Exam questions can be divided into two basic kinds: objective and subjective. Objective questions are those which involve selection, such as multiple-choice, true-false, matching, and some short answer questions. These are items for which there should be only one correct answer, which is determined by the examiner ahead of time. Subjective questions call upon the student to supply answers rather than merely selecting the correct response, and may have a variety of responses that could be considered as correct. Essay questions fit into this category as do some short answer questions. A basic trade-off between the two types of questions is that good objective items are difficult to write but easy to score, while good essay questions may be easier to write but are very difficult to score. The major types of questions are described below together with their best use, advantages, disadvantages, and some tips for effective use.[5]

TRUE-FALSE

A student is presented with a statement and instructed to mark it true or false. A variation of this type of question presents the student with two statements from which the most correct statement is to be chosen.

Best use:
Measuring recognition of fact.

Advantages:
--Since individual items are short, many questions can be asked, increasing test reliability and allowing the instructor to cover many topics.
--Very easy to correct.

Disadvantages:
--Very difficult to write items that are totally non-ambiguous when dealing with college level material.
--Writing items that sufficiently test knowledge and retain complete clarity is time-consuming.
--May not give a good estimate of student knowledge, since score by chance alone is 50% correct. Penalties for guessing may be applied but there is disagreement about their usefulness and contribution to test reliability.

5. If your teaching duties entail the writing of exams or exam items frequently you may wish to consult Ebel, Tuckman, Thorndike, or Nunnally as cited in the bibliography. Other works included in the test construction portion of the bibliography may also prove useful; most of these books contain excellent examples of various types of test questions.

Suggestions:

--Avoid negatives and especially double negatives in the test statement.
--Requiring students to correct everything in the statement which is incorrect can increase the value of this type of question.
--Make sure that statements are totally true or totally false; otherwise you may penalize a student with above average knowledge of the subject.
--When writing items, write only true items and then make about half of them false.
--Each item should test only a single point.
--Always attribute statements of opinion to a source.
--Beware of giving clues based on the length of the item.

MULTIPLE CHOICE

Consists of a stem asking or implying a question for which students are to select one or more supplied responses as most correct. Generally, three to five alternative responses are provided; incorrect alternatives are called distractors.

Best Use:

Can be used to measure most educational outcomes and is considered by some to be the single most reliable and discriminating of test formats. There is, however, some disagreement on whether it is appropriate when the ability to analyze or synthesize complex material is being tested.

Advantages:

--Easy to correct.
--Since most individual items take only a short time for students to answer, items relating to most course topics can be included.

Disadvantages:

--Takes a very great amount of time to construct an adequate number of good questions.

Suggestions:

--Present the question or problem clearly in the stem. It may be better to use questions rather than incomplete statements.
--If testing for definitions, give the term in the stem rather than as a possible response.
--Make sure to list all alternatives on separate lines or to provide some clear way of separating alternatives. Use capital letters rather than lower case letters to mark alternatives, since the latter are not always legible when written.
--All possible options should look like plausible choices and be about the same length.
--Check to see that all alternatives match the grammar, numbering, gender, and style of the stem equally well.
--To avoid possible confusion, keep the stem in the affirmative rather than in the negative.
--Always check for unnecessary complexity and length in the stem and alternatives. Do not make it difficult for students to keep in mind distinctions between alternatives.
--Many feel that inclusion of alternatives such as "all of the above" or "none of the above" should be used sparingly unless the alternatives are all absolutely true or false, as in spelling or computation.

Suggestions (continued)

--In constructing distractors, think about the class of objects or ideas to which they must belong and of things that have some association with terms used in the stem.
--Make sure that the position of correct responses is random. Many test writers have a propensity to use the "B" or middle option for the correct answer.

MATCHING

A variation of the multiple choice test, it presents students with clusters composed of a list of objects, people, or ideas (premises), together with a separate list of responses along with directions for matching the two. Can also be used to label charts, maps, etc.

Best Use:
Who, what, when, where questions. To determine whether students can distinguish between similar facts and ideas.

Advantages:
--Enables the instructor to include many items within time constraints.
--Students often see this form of testing as enjoyable and relatively unthreatening.

Disadvantages:
--Can seldom be used to measure learning beyond recognition of basic factual knowledge.

Suggestions:
--Choose homogeneous premises and responses for each cluster. For example, make all premises the names of astronauts and make all responses the names of NASA space missions.
--Listings in alphabetical, numerical, or chronological order prevent give-away clues and allow students to keep possible responses easily in mind.
--Using more responses than premises is preferable to perfect matching since it reduces the possibility of choosing correct answers on the basis of elimination or guessing. It is usually not appropriate to include multiple responses for one premise.

FILL IN THE BLANK/SHORT ANSWER OBJECTIVE

Students provide a word, phrase, or number to answer a question or complete a sentence.

Best Use:
For factual information. Tests recall rather than recognition.

Advantages:
--Less affected by guessing than true-false or multiple choice questions.
--Reasonably easy to write.
--Allows many topics to be covered in a short space and within time constraints.

Disadvantages:

--This test format is usually appropriate only with simple subject matter and facts.
--It is difficult to phrase items with the level of clarity necessary to avoid confusing students.
--If unanticipated correct responses are possible, can be quite time-consuming to correct.

Suggestions:

--Word the statement or question carefully so that there is only one possible answer. It may help to think of the intended answer first and then form a statement or question applying solely to it.
--Avoid using the standard phrasing of an important idea.
--In a sentence leave only one, or at most two, blanks to be filled in.
--Leave only important terms blank.
--Placing the blank at the end of the sentence makes the item easier to write and understand.
--Avoid instances in which the grammar of the sentence helps in determining the answer (such as "a" or "an").
--If numerical answers are required, the type of unit and degree of precision should be indicated directly if the statement itself does not provide a clue.

SHORT ANSWER ESSAY (RESTRICTED RESPONSE ESSAY)

Focused essay questions intended to be discussed within one or two paragraphs of student writing.

Best Use:

To test both recall and analytical skills. Especially helpful in assessing comprehension, application, and analysis skills.

Advantages:

--Allows for more topics to be covered than the long answer essay format.
--Fairly easy to write.
--Allows students more leeway in responding to questions than do objective formats.

Disadvantages:

--Time-consuming to correct although not so much so as the long answer essay.
--Difficult to test student understanding of very complex concepts.

Suggestions:

--Make layout of exam suggest to students recommended length of their responses.
--Make list of points that must be covered in each response and grade on the basis of points adequately covered in student's response.

LONG ANSWER ESSAY (EXTENDED RESPONSE ESSAY)

Relatively few, general questions that call for extended student answers.

Best Use:

To measure complex learning outcomes such as the ability to relate facts, principles, and concepts; to create and evaluate ideas; and to organize them in a coherent and logical way. Especially helpful in assessing evaluation and synthesis skills.

Advantages:

--Provides student with the intellectual freedom necessary if the instructor is to assess student's retention of and ability to apply material in both breadth and depth.
--Relatively easy to write, although writer must take care that questions are appropriately focused.
--Encourages student to focus on broad understanding of concepts and integration of facts.

Disadvantages:

--Very time-consuming to correct.
--Due to time required for students to respond, only a small portion of course content can be tested.
--Subject to biased and unreliable scoring; assessment may be influenced by largely extraneous factors.

Suggestions:

--Write a sample answer or outline or at least a list of minimal points that should be covered and used for reference when evaluating exams. This will also give you an idea of time requirements.
--Read through at least a sample of responses to a particular question before beginning to read for grading.
--Grade question by question, not student by student; randomly re-sort papers between questions.
--Evaluation should be anonymous as possible--ask students to write names only at the back of the exam or to only supply their ID numbers.
--Be as liberal with comments as time permits.
--Provide enough detail to focus students toward appropriate responses.
--Good essay questions tend to start with words like "contrast," "relate," "reconcile" rather than "who," "what," or "when."
--Provide students with suggested time limits for answering each question.
--Decide in advance how much writing skill will count.

PROBLEM SOLVING

Students are presented with a quantitative or other problem which they must solve.

Best Use:

To test understanding and ability to apply material. To measure mastery of concepts in certain math and science areas, this test format is the only choice.

Advantages:

--Allows instructor to evaluate student's strategy and process in problem solving.

Disadvantages:

--Takes longer to correct than multiple choice format.

Suggestions:

--Try to select problems that resemble those worked in class.
--Make problems as interesting as possible by using real life situations and avoiding unnecessary computation.
--Determine procedures for allowing partial credit in advance.
--Specify the units of measurement and the degree of precision required.

GENERAL TIPS

--You may want to gather possibilities for exam questions throughout the semester and keep ideas on index cards. Sometimes, student discussion or homework will provide you with good ideas.
--Keep reading difficulties of items as low as possible.
--Don't provide clues for one item in another.
--It's best to keep each item independent, rather than as a series in which selection of the correct answer for one item depends upon having chosen an earlier correct answer.
--The layout of the exam is very important. It serves to structure the student's focus and will often signal how much time is to be spent on various items. If you use blue books, it generally signals that the longest possible response is desired. If you want students to answer essay questions more compactly, you must make this clear either verbally, in the written test instructions, or by providing an exam form that clearly blocks out space expected to be needed for the response. Be sure that the exam form is completely legible.
--There is some disagreement on whether it's desirable to mix different types of questions on the same exam. Very often, you may want to mix some form of objective questions with short or long essay items. Generally, if you use more than one type of question on an exam it is helpful if you group them clearly according to type. It is also helpful to arrange questions in ascending order of difficulty and/or length of time required to answer.
--If you include objective items such as matching or multiple choice, make sure that all alternatives for one question are on the same page of the exam. It's difficult and confusing for students to keep flipping pages back and forth to answer one question.
--Don't be afraid to ask for help. Learning to write good test items is an art and takes time to master.

Open Book versus Closed Book Exams
In Class versus Take Home Exams

To some extent, open book and take home exams parallel situations that students may meet in future practice. In "real life," however, individuals are often required to solve problems or discuss ideas without time or opportunity to consult sources, so the applicability of open book (and especially take home) exams may be limited in simulating real-life situations. In giving open book exams, make sure that students have been informed as to the type of material they will be allowed to use during the exam. In giving take home exams, it is important to set a length limit on answers and to be explicit in informing students of any policies concerning group versus individual work.

Administering the Exam

Make sure test directions are precise. The writing of test instructions should be given as much attention as the construction of the items themselves. People often tend to read over directions hurriedly, so don't hesitate to underline or otherwise highlight especially important parts of the instructions. Ask a colleague to read over your exam, since we are often unaware of ambiguities in our own writing. Go over instructions for each section of the exam at the beginning of the testing period and ask if students have any questions about what they are to do. If guessing or not guessing carries a penalty,

inform students of this. In introductory classes, you may want to briefly review with students general strategies for approaching various types of questions such as multiple choice, matching, etc.

Arrive early and distribute exams at the time for the beginning of the exam or class. Don't penalize those who have arrived on time by waiting for late-comers. If materials such as blue books, scratch paper, pencils, etc. are required, make sure that you bring along a supply and place them in an easily accessible area.

While administering the exam, inform students periodically of the amount of time remaining. Write the time remaining on the board at several intervals and make verbal announcements once or twice. In some instances, you may also want to add something like, "If you are not yet on question 3, you are working too slowly." About five minutes before the scheduled ending time, announce to students that only a few minutes are left. It is sometimes difficult to collect exams from all students at the end of the testing period, yet you must ensure that everyone has been given an equal amount of time to complete the exam. It may help to announce to students at the beginning of the testing period that all exams must be turned in at the end of the period and no extra time will be allowed. If a few students are still reluctant to relinquish their exams at the end of the testing period, you must request that they do so.

During the test you should stay in the room and be available to answer questions as well as to monitor the testing situation. Be sure that your behavior does not serve as a distracting element. Undue pacing, mindless pencil tapping, chatting with colleagues who walk past the room, etc., is particularly distracting to students. Remember that, as the instructor of the class, your actions immediately attract the attention of your students.

The physical setting of the exam can be important. Try to protect students as much as possible from noise and other distractions. Sometimes, you will have little control over this (for example, if the grass in front of your classroom is being mowed on the day you are giving an exam), but do take control over what you can. Sometimes, this is as simple as closing the door or pulling the shades. Seating arrangements are also important. Students should be seated in ways that make cheating difficult, and you should make certain that all students have appropriate places in which to take the exam, rather than ending up with some students sitting on the floor. Make certain also that all students have removed from view materials which are not to be used during the exam. Taking note of such things may save you a great deal of trouble later on. These arrangements may need to be quite formalized when a large class takes an exam together. (See section on cheating and plagiarism.)

It is appropriate to answer student questions during the exam as long as your answers don't supply a clue to the correct answer itself. If a student asks a question about a point which appears likely to cause confusion for the class as a whole, announce the appropriate explanation or clarification to everyone. If instructions or material on the exam contain errors that should be pointed out, announce this to the class and write the appropriate information on the blackboard.

Student Test Anxiety

Experience with a particular test format or setting helps to alleviate some of the anxiety associated with testing. The most able students tend to feel the least anxious about exams. Students who know the material rarely "freeze" during an exam, although it can happen. Students with a strong emotional or academic need to do well tend to be the most anxious about exams. If a student appears to have unusual anxiety about testing situations, you may want to refer her or him to the Counseling Service's Test Anxiety Program (see campus resources section). As an instructor, one of the most important things you can do to reduce the anxiety related to testing is to let students know what is expected of them--the types of questions they can expect to see on the exam and what sorts of topics may be covered.

Although humor can be an important and valuable teaching skill, jokes about exams, especially those that are sarcastic or condescending, are neither appropriate nor appreciated. Talk to students as adults and acknowledge their concerns openly and honestly.

PAPERS, ESSAYS, AND MAJOR CLASS PROJECTS

Teaching assistants' duties vary greatly in terms of responsibility for assigning and evaluating student papers, essays, and major class projects. Some teaching assistants are responsible for both assigning and evaluating such work, others for evaluation or partial evaluation only. Still others may need to be prepared to answer student questions about class essay and paper assignments, but are not responsible for any of the actual evaluation. Be sure that you consult with your supervising faculty member so that you are certain of your responsibilities in this area.

Before you make your first assignment, establish a clear policy about due dates, late papers, group versus individual work, and the like. Announce this to your class. You may want to provide students with a written statement of your policies (perhaps included on the syllabus). Then, stick with the policies you have made.

In making any assignment, being clear and being specific are basic requirements. Taking time to let students know at the beginning what you expect of them can save both you and them time and grief in the future. It may help to give written, rather than just oral, guidelines for major essays and termpapers--what you say and what your students hear could be at odds. Set aside class time to discuss major assignments. Encourage your students to ask questions and be prepared to provide answers. If the assignment is vague in your mind, it won't be clear to students either.

In introductory classes, particularly, it is a good idea to give students a choice of topics to work on. Limiting students to a single topic can be frustrating and decrease motivation. However, asking students to write a paper "on any topic related to this class" promotes confusion and insecurity. The more focused and precise you can be in explaining the parameters of the paper or project to students, the better their subsequent efforts will be.

Requiring students to hand in outlines and/or rough drafts of their papers can be valuable and is not necessarily more time-consuming for you. Knowing

that they must show you their outline and/or draft helps students keep on schedule, and provides them with feedback that will enable them to learn more and do a better job. It helps you because the resulting papers will be less time-consuming to read and correct, and because many last minute questions, panics, and problems will be alleviated. It may also serve to prevent plagiarism.

Evaluating several student papers or essays can be a draining experience. You may find that it helps to spread out the task of reading and evaluating over a period of a few days if possible. Before evaluating any of the papers, skim through a least a representational cross-section to get an idea of their general level. Although it is not always possible to do so, reading only two to three papers at a sitting may help you keep your mind fresh and focused, and better able to fairly evaluate and comment upon students' work.

When evaluating papers, make as many comments as time permits. It is very disappointing to students to have a paper returned with no comments other than the grade earned. If you can relate your comments to the student's past work, it will be all the better (for example, "I'm glad to see you're making such good progress in developing a topic and sticking with it."). Certainly, you will need to make some negative comments, but be sure that these are constructive, not derogatory.

--What criteria should be used to evaluate a student essay or term paper? Things to look for (and comment about) include the following:

--Has the student fulfilled the terms of the assignment?
--Are the student's thoughts communicated adequately?
--Is there a central thesis? Is it sustained and developed? Does it lead to a tenable conclusion?
--Is the thesis adequately supported by evidence, logical arguments, examples, etc.? Has counter-evidence been considered? Is all evidence adequately documented?
--Is the essay organized in a logical and effective way?

Returning papers promptly is a good policy but not if it comes at the expense of careful reading. There may be times when it is not possible for you to return student papers as soon as you might like. Most students will be understanding about unavoidable delays, and you should feel free to discuss such delays with your class. Making vague comments about return dates of student papers is not a good policy unless you want students to come to class regularly primarily because of the off chance they may get their papers back that day!

--How much does writing count? Am I responsible for teaching students how to write in a Geography course? What can I do to alleviate student anxieties about writing? Departments and instructors in the College differ as to the amount of emphasis they place on writing skills when evaluating student work. All L & S departments are required to evaluate the writing ability of their majors, usually in an advanced class. You should discuss the importance of student writing in evaluating student work with the instructor in charge of the course. Particularly in lectures to which more than one teaching assistant has been assigned, it's important that any such standards be applied consistently.

How much can you do to help students improve their writing? Although you may not generally be expected to serve as a composition teacher, you should be aware that there are many ways in which you can encourage the development of effective writing skills in your students. Many freshmen have little idea of what writing in college is all about, and many students in general have little understanding of techniques used by accomplished writers or of the level of writing generally considered acceptable in academic settings. Almost all students care about writing--they realize that it will be important to them no matter what their academic or vocational goals are--and any guidance you are able to give them will probably be greatly appreciated. You may wish to devote some time (perhaps in conjunction with assigning an essay or term paper) to discussing with your students a few basics of writing such as the following:

--Most writers rewrite not once but several times.
--Few academic writers work completely in isolation--they ask colleagues to read and critique their work.
--Few writers are able to approach an essay free-form; instead they have an outline of what they are going to say (at least in their heads, if not on paper).
--Even great writers find writing to be, at least sometimes, an extremely difficult and arduous task.
--A dictionary and a thesaurus are indispensable tools for all writers.

You can go a long way toward helping students improve their writing skills by commenting on writing-related problems even if you don't include writing in evaluation. Many teachers have found it helpful to provide students with a handout explaining grammatical correction marks--this will make it easy for you to identify writing problems in your students' work. Even if you don't have the time to comment on the word-by-word or sentence-by-sentence level of your students' writing, at least comment on the overall structure, organization, and style of their papers.

Students should be encouraged to use the Writing Lab (see section on campus resources). The Lab is designed to help all students (even thesis writers!) improve their writing. Many students have found it useful to consult Lab staff routinely about drafts of their papers even if they have no particular writing problems. If it is clear that one of your students is having difficulties with writing consistently or suffers from writing anxiety, be sure to refer the student to the Lab for assistance.

HOMEWORK

Regular homework is a useful teaching and learning tool in many disciplines. Such work allows for continuing opportunities to assess student progress and encourages students to keep up with the course. Students are less likely to develop incorrect ideas and learning strategies if they receive speedy and frequent feedback. You should check with the instructor in charge of the course so that you are aware of any policies about regular homework assignments. Chances are that fellow teaching assistants have made up homework assignments that can be easily adapted for use in your class--don't be afraid to share.

How can I assign homework without spending my life correcting it?
--Assign homework regularly but ask students to hand it in for correction only at unspecified intervals.

--Some homework can be used just for students to assess their own progress. Have them correct it themselves by providing them with an answer sheet or going over it in class. Alternatively, collect papers, distribute to students in the class, and have them correct each others' homework.
--Collect all homework regularly but only grade certain problems--be sure to let students know what you are doing.

GRADING AND RECORD-KEEPING

(Note: See Appendix C for guidelines for retention of final grade lists, grade books, and source documents for final grade lists. For further information about these guidelines as well as for information about guidelines for retention of other student records, contact University Archives, B134 Memorial Library, 2-3284.)

Grades cause many an anxious moment for both teacher and student and it is important that you approach your grading responsibilities with great care and seriousness. You must do everything possible to ensure that you grade students fairly and objectively. Thus, many teaching assistants' grading duties start at the very beginning of the semester--by sharing with students the grading policies for the course. You should communicate fully with your students--does attendance count? What if they get an "A" on the final but "D"s on all other exams? The teaching assistant needs to be prepared to answer such questions at the beginning of the semester and then to stick with the policies that have been set. If unusual circumstances dictate a change in established grading policies, these should be thoroughly explained to students as soon as possible. Second, you can help to ensure fair grading by giving fair exams and assignments. Third, and perhaps easiest to overlook, is the necessity of keeping careful and complete records of student work. Even if you are not by nature an extremely well-organized person, you owe it to your students to be organized in this regard. On record-keeping:

--Most departments will supply you with a grade book. Use it--faithfully.
--You must keep records on all aspects of the course you intend to include in evaluation. For example, if you include attendance or participation, you must keep relevant records. Relying on memory is not enough. Results of all exams and all homework assignments (even if only a check mark to indicate that the student handed in the assignment) must be recorded.
--Idiosyncratic hen-scratchings won't help anyone. A question may arise about a student's grade at a time when you are not available (e.g., after the semester). For this reason, it's important that your records be easily understood by colleagues.
--Any mathematical or other techniques used by you in averaging individual marks to compute a final course grade should be documented and, preferably, kept with your grade book.
--You may want to keep a duplicate copy of your grading records in case you misplace or lose your original records.
--Your grades, class rosters, and other course records are official University records and must be available to your course supervisor and the department at all times.

In general, there are three ways to approach grading. First, student performance may be compared to a reference group such as all students in a section or course, all students who have ever taken a particular course, all students in introductory courses in a particular department, or the student body of an entire university. If very small reference groups are used, an "A" grade in this type of grading system does not necessarily mean that the student has completely mastered course material but, instead, indicates the student has attained a level of mastery superior to most other students in the reference group. At the same time, an "F" grade does not necessarily imply an absence of knowledge of course material but, rather, low mastery in comparison to others. If larger and more representative reference groups are used, this grading system allows easily interpretable grades to be assigned. Modified versions of such a system are used most frequently on this campus and are generally interpretable throughout the university as well as at other institutions. You should discuss grading standards with the instructor in charge of the course to which you have been assigned in order to be certain that you understand both the explicit and implicit grading practices of your department.

Second, student performance can be compared to an established standard. Under such a system, student work is evaluated in the context of absolute standards. An "A" in this system means that a student has attained superior mastery of the course content. Since grading under this system is referenced to an absolute, no curve is employed. Thus, it is possible that all students will receive "A"s or "F"s. If course goals can be very precisely defined and attainment of course objectives measured explicitly, such a grading system can be quite workable. In many introductory courses, however, especially in survey courses, it is difficult to employ such a system.

Third, evaluation of student work can be based on improvement and/or ability. When improvement forms the basis of evaluation, a student with low mastery of course material at the beginning of the semester is generally at an advantage compared to a student who has some prior knowledge or experience. Evaluation on the basis of ability requires comparison of the student's attainment with some indicator of his or her academic ability, such as the ACT or SAT. Grading on the basis of improvement or ability presents serious problems philosophically, practically, and in terms of establishing a grading system which allows for easy interpretation of grades outside the setting of a particular course. For these reasons, this method of grading is usually avoided except in very unusual circumstances.

Determining course grades

In most instances, determining a final course grade should be relatively straightforward. In smaller classes, perhaps the most efficient method for assigning course grades is to plot student standings after students' scores on all evaluation instruments have been averaged. Plotting of scores also helps to maintain objectivity, since a student's standing is not seen in connection with her or his name. In general, student-standing scores will fall into several rather well-defined groups with a few scattered cases lying between groups. In conjunction with overall course and/or departmental grading policies, grade ranges can be set by determining cut-off points between the groups of scores. Cut-off points for students whose scores place them in intermediate categories

are best determined by additional review of all factors considered in evaluation. Such a technique can provide for objective and efficient determination of course grades for a small group of students. Some instructors may use more elaborate statistical techniques, such as conversion of test scores to standard scores, especially in large courses.

The following grading scale is used in the College of Letters and Science:

Grade		Grade Points per Credit
A	(Excellent)	4
AB	(Intermediate grade)	3.5
B	(Good)	3
BC	(Intermediate grade)	2.5
C	(Fair)	2
D	(Poor)	1
F	(Failure)	0

It is very common for students to complain about their final grade (or a grade on an individual exam or assignment). It is your responsibility to listen carefully to such complaints and to be willing to review your grading calculations. It is possible that you have made a mistake. Bear in mind, however, that your discussion with the student should focus on the possibility of an error having been made in terms of computation of a score or grade--not on your grading philosophy or policies per se. The latter should not be negotiable. Remember, it is generally unfair to other students to regrade an exam subsequently apart from the class as a whole. Unresolved complaints should be referred to the instructor in charge of the course and, ultimately, to the department chairman.

In dealing with grading questions or problems, don't desitate to rely heavily on your course supervisor's experience. Grading, and explaining grades, can be difficult, and the experiences of others can often be helpful in reassuring and advising you.

CHEATING AND PLAGIARISM

UW-Madison rules and procedures concerning academic misconduct are set out in Chapter 17 of the University of Wisconsin System Administrative Code. A copy of Chapter 17 appears each year in the Wheat and Chaff. Section 17.13 deals specifically with procedures for academic misconduct. If you suspect that one of your students has engaged in cheating or plagiarism, you should confer with the instructor in charge of the course immediately. As stated in Chapter 17, UW-Madison rules require first an initial conference between the instructor and the student(s) suspected of cheating. Appeal beyond the initial decision of the instructor is then possible. If it is ever necessary for you to participate in an instructor/student conference concerning possible cheating, be sure you review Chapter 17 before the conference.

If you are assigned to a course in which plagiarism is a potential problem, you may find it helpful to discuss the concept of plagiarism with your students. Many students, especially freshmen, may have only a very fuzzy idea of when and how to give references for the work of others. The best prevention for plagiarism is open and detailed discussion with students, either individually or as a group, as to the policy and philosophy of the instructor. Students should be absolutely clear as to the type of material they may and may not use as well as how such material should be cited. Some instructors have found requiring students to hand in a copy of their rough drafts as well as the final version of a paper to be helpful in controlling the potential for plagiarism.

When administering classroom exams, there are a number of frequently used steps that can be taken to prevent cheating:

--Seat students in every other row and seat.
--Make sure that all books and other material not to be used during the exam are placed out of sight of the students.
--Stay in the classroom while students are taking the exam.

Simple and obvious as the above tips seem, they will go a long way toward diminishing the possibility for cheating on exams.

ACADEMIC DEADLINES AND POLICIES

(Note: Deadlines will vary for modular courses; deadlines in the Summer Sessions are determined by the length of the session.)

Undergraduate Students--Campus-Wide Deadlines

ADDING COURSES-end of the second week of the semester.

ELECTING PASS/FAIL-end of the fourth week of the semester (effective fall semester, 1985-86).

CHANGING REGISTRATION IN A COURSE TO AUDIT BASIS-end of the fourth week of the semester.

DROPPING COURSES WITHOUT THE DROP RECORDED ON THE TRANSCRIPT-end of the fourth week of the semester.

FINAL DEADLINE TO DROP COURSES-end of the ninth week of the semester (effective fall semester, 1985-86).

LAST DAY TO WITHDRAW-end of the twelfth week of the semester.

Graduate Students--Campus-Wide Deadlines

COURSE ADDS, DROPS, AND CREDIT CHANGES- Through the sixth week of the semester, graduate students may add, drop, or make course credit changes with the approval of their major professor and, in the first two weeks of the semester for assignment committee courses, the approval of the assignment committee. From the seventh through the twelfth week, graduate students may add, drop, or make course credit changes with the approval of the major professor and the instructor of the course. After the twelfth week of classes, courses may not be added, dropped, or credits changed except in unusual circumstances and with the Graduate School Dean's approval. Signatures of the instructor and the major professor and a letter of explanation of the reason from the major professor to the Dean of the Graduate School are required.

ACADEMIC POLICIES AFFECTING UNDERGRADUATES

(Note: Graduate students should refer to the appropriate Bulletin of the Graduate School for information concerning academic policies affecting them.)

COURSE ADDS AND DROPS- Courses may be added during the first two weeks of the semester with the approval of departmental assignment committees for all assignment committee courses. Courses may not be added after the second week of the semester except under special circumstances and with the approval of the student's Academic Dean. Factors considered in allowing students to add courses after the deadline include attendance in the course and circumstances which prevented the student from adding the course by the normal deadline. Instructors may be asked to furnish information concerning the student's attendance and progress.

During the first two weeks of the semester, the assignment committee stamp is required for making any changes in assignment committee courses, including course drops. Beginning in the fall semester, 1985-86, all undergraduate students may drop courses through the end of the ninth week of the semester. Courses dropped after the end of the fourth week of the semester will remain on the transcript with the notation "DR" entered in the grade column. After the end of the ninth week, students must obtain Dean's permission to drop courses. Such exceptions to the drop deadline are permitted only in unusual circumstances.

SECTION CHANGES- There is no deadline for section changes, but students are encouraged to file section change forms as early in the semester as possible. During the first two weeks of the semester, assignment committee stamps are required for section changes in assignment committee courses. After the end of the second week of classes, section change forms must bear the departmental stamp or an authorized departmental signature.

PASS/FAIL- Eligible undergraduate students may carry a minimal number of elective courses on a pass/fail basis. Students must file a pass/fail form in their Dean's Office by the end of the fourth week of the semester in order to be registered for a course on such a basis. This campus-wide deadline is effective beginning with the fall semester, 1985-86. Course instructors are not informed whether students are carrying their course pass/fail and assign a letter course grade to the student which is later recorded as "S" (satisfactory) or "U" (unsatisfactory) on the student's record by the Registrar's Office. A student must receive a grade of "C" or better to receive a grade of "satisfactory" and credit for the course.

CREDIT/NO CREDIT- Some courses are graded on a credit/no credit basis, rather than on a letter grade basis. Such courses are marked with boldfaced, italicized credit information in the timetable.

AUDITS- A student may audit a course only with the consent of the instructor in charge of the course. In general, courses may be audited only if no laboratory work or performance skills are involved. Some instructors do not permit auditing because they believe auditors rarely come to class prepared and usually drop out after the first few weeks. A change from an audit to a credit basis must be made by the deadline for adding courses. A change from a credit to audit basis must be made by the end of the fourth week of classes. Students officially auditing courses pay fees as though they are carrying the course on a credit basis.

WITHDRAWALS- Students must withdraw if they drop all of the courses they are carrying. Students who officially withdraw by the end of the fourth week of classes do not have courses or grades for that semester recorded on their transcripts. After the end of the fourth week, courses registered for will be noted on the transcript and the notation "W" will be entered in the grade column for each course. The deadline for withdrawal is the end of the twelfth week of the semester. Students who officially withdraw are regarded as continuing students in the next semester. Students will also be withdrawn for failure to pay fees, although they will still be liable for a portion of their tuition and fee charges.

INCOMPLETES- "Incompletes" should be used sparingly; they are appropriate only when a student requests one and only when the instructor knows that the student 1) is unable to complete all of the work on time for reasons beyond the student's control; 2) has performed satisfactorily on the completed work; and 3) can remove the "Incomplete" by doing only a limited amount of work.

"Incompletes" given for inappropriate reasons cause serious problems, both for the student and the instructor. Grades of "Incomplete" should not be given in the case of a student who could have completed the work on time, who has performed unsatisfactorily, or who has been absent excessively. A student who cannot remove the "Incomplete" without doing a large amount of make-up work or who has not requested and explained the need for such a grade should not be given an "Incomplete." Instructors in doubt as to whether or not to report an "Incomplete" for a student should contact the student's Academic Dean's office.

Undergraduate students in the College of Letters and Science must remove "Incompletes" by the end of the fourth week of their next semester in residence, excluding summer sessions; undergraduate students in other colleges and schools must remove "Incompletes" by the end of their next semester in residence unless their instructor and Dean determine that the incomplete work must be made up by an earlier date. An instructor who expects to be off campus or not on staff during the student's next semester in residence should make arrangements with her or his department to have the student's remaining work evaluated. If a Letters and Science student asks for an extension of the four-week deadline, she or he must obtain a letter from the instructor in charge of the course recommending such an extension, and must meet with a member of the L & S Student Academic Affairs Dean's staff well in advance of the deadline. Extensions are approved only when significant circumstances beyond the student's control prevented completion of the remaining work by the four-week deadline. Lapsed "Incompletes" are recorded as failures on the student's transcript. Generally, it is best for both the student and the instructor if the "Incomplete" is removed before the next semester begins. A student need not be enrolled in order to remove a grade of "Incomplete."

GRADE CHANGES- After final grades have been reported by the instructor, grades may be changed only in cases of computational or clerical error. Such an error may result from a mix-up in section assignments, a mix-up in names, entry on the wrong line of a grade list, or other similar kinds of mistakes. Requests for a change of grade will not be approved if the reason is other than computational or clerical error. Examples of unacceptable reasons are: a change of judgement on the part of the instructor, the student's need for a higher grade for such purposes as graduation or program admissibility, or additional work done by the student to raise the grade. The only exception to these guidelines is that a failure may be changed to an "Incomplete" if new evidence shows the student to be eligible for such a grade.

After the initial computer grade run, the "UW Grade Change Report" must be used whenever an instructor wishes to change a grade. Such grade change requests must be approved by the instructor in charge of the course, the department chairman, and the student's Academic Dean.

REPEATING COURSES- Current faculty policy permits undergraduate students to repeat any course once with all grades (A through F) and their associated grade points included in the grade point average, but with credits counted only once.

SIX WEEK GRADES FOR FRESHMEN- For all freshmen, grade reports as of the end of the sixth week of the semester must be submitted to the appropriate Dean's Office. Special forms and directions will be provided for the reporting of such grades.

FOR TEACHING ASSISTANTS NEW TO THE UNITED STATES

This section is intended for teaching assistants who are new to the United States and its educational system. Its purpose is to help you better understand your students and make your first days in the classroom as productive as possible.

U.S. Students and the U.S. Educational System

In contrast to many countries, the United States does not have a federal system of education. Instead, public education is the responsibility of the fifty separate states. As a result, the U.S. does not have a standard school leaving or college entrance examination. Students in the United States enter college after completing twelve years of elementary and secondary school. Except for specialized high schools in major urban areas, students planning on entering a trade, other job, or vocational training immediately after high school attend the same school as students planning on attending college, although they may take different courses. The quality of public education systems varies from state to state and even from community to community within a state. Private schools (both religiously affiliated and independent) are also common.

Colleges and universities in the U.S. vary in terms of their entrance requirements. The University of Wisconsin-Madison requires that entering freshmen be in the upper half of their high school class and have completed a required number and distribution of academic units including science, English, social studies, and mathematics. In practice, however, most entering UW-Madison freshmen rank much higher in their high school classes; over 50% graduated in the top 20% of their high school classes. There is a limit on how many non-Wisconsin residents can be admitted. Students are not required to complete any external college entrance examinations. College attendance in the United States has expanded greatly in the past 25 years and most young people plan on attending some form of postsecondary education. Women are as likely to attend college as men. Students from all economic levels are encouraged to seek out educational opportunities, and federal and state financial aid is available for many students in the form of grants, loans, and work-study jobs. In addition, many students work from a few hours a week to full-time while attending school.

As a result of the above factors, you will probably find your students much more heterogeneous in terms of socio-economic background, preparation for college, and motivation for college attendance than students in your home country might be. It is also possible you will find that freshmen and sophomores in the United States are not as advanced in some subject areas as comparable students in your country. Generally, by the time U.S. students enter their junior year of college, their achievement levels have met and in some instances surpassed those of students in other countries at equivalent educational levels. U.S. college students are expected to work quite hard and college is generally a competitive and demanding environment. Not all those who start college are able to finish. Some students leave for varying periods of time to work, travel, or start a family, and may return later to finish their degrees. More and more, people who, for various reasons, did not attend or did not finish college immediately after high school are returning to school. Thus, you may find that a good number of your students are older than the traditional college age and have already had a great deal of work and life experience.

U.S. schools rely less on principles of rote learning and more on principles of inductive and deductive thinking than do schools in many parts of the world. Thus, you may find that your students appear to be lacking in factual knowledge, but seem very perceptive in terms of developing an argument or working through problems.

U.S. Attitudes in the Classroom

Americans are noted for their casual styles of behavior and dress and these attitudes extend to the college campus and classroom. Your students may dress in any number of ways: from military uniforms for those participating in reserve training, to clothes resembling those seen on rock stars, to those of young business people. Almost all styles of dress are possible and acceptable. Some of your students may not wear shoes in nice weather; this is not considered strange or a sign of disrespect. Professors and teaching assistants are not expected to conform to any particular style of dress and you may find that your colleagues exhibit a wide range of taste in clothing styles.

There are few rigidly prescribed manners of address or forms of showing respect in the United States. The role of the teacher is not as inherently connected with authority and respect as it is in many countries. Rather, your students will give you the respect and courtesy expected of one individual in her or his dealings with another and show their respect for you as a teacher in this way. You should tell your students how you prefer to be addressed (usually either by Mr., Miss, Ms., or Mrs. in conjunction with your last name or, very commonly, by your first name). Your students' behavior may at first seem to you to be somewhat unacademic in terms of speech, posture, or lack of acknowledgement of you as the teacher. Very frequently, students will speak up without first signaling to you for permission. This is normal behavior and should not be viewed by you in any way as a personal affront or insult.

In terms of your own general classroom behavior, you may find that very formal behavior on your part will probably not be extremely well accepted by your students. You may need to develop interpersonal skills not generally deemed necessary for a university level teacher in your own country. You should, however, set your own limits of permissible behavior with which you are comfortable within your classroom and share these expectations with your students. A good idea would be to observe the class sessions of some of your American colleagues to get an idea of the normal give and take in the classroom.

Many U.S. students will be quick to tell you if they feel you are assigning too much work or your exams are too difficult. You should always be willing to discuss such concerns, either in the classroom or with individual students, and to explain the reasons for your policies. Do not, however, make any major changes in these policies without first consulting with your course supervisor, and do not feel obliged to change your policies if they are well-grounded. You and your faculty supervisor, not the students, are in charge of the class. Your students do not expect you to know everything. If you do not know the answer to a student's question, you are free to admit that, although you should try to find the answer and report back. U.S. students are expected to attend classes and to complete assigned work and examinations on time unless there are extenuating circumstances preventing them from doing so. Cheating and plagiarism are not condoned or accepted. You should discuss academic requirements and expectations for your particular class with the instructor in charge of the course.

Communication Skills (Verbal and Nonverbal)

Many Americans have had little experience with or exposure to languages other than English. As a result, sometimes their immediate reaction to any foreign accent is to make an unconscious decision that whatever is said cannot be understood. This is unfortunate and very frustrating for the non-native English speaker whose command of English may be highly developed. If this is a problem for you, it will probably work itself out within a few days as students realize that they can in fact understand you.

Some non-native English speaking teaching assistants, however, do have difficulty communicating with their students. Unfortunately, high-level abilities in reading and writing academic English do not automatically guarantee a command of the colloquial language at the level required of a college instructor. If, after the first few days, your students frequently tell you or otherwise signal that they do not understand you or if you repeatedly find it difficult to understand or respond to their questions, you should think seriously about taking steps to improve your English. Contact the Program in English as a Second Language, 5134 White Hall (263-3780). The program offers general courses in English as a Second Language as well as special short courses designed for foreign teaching assistants. Program staff will also be able to put you in touch with both volunteer and for-pay tutors.

Each culture has developed a unique nonverbal as well as verbal language. This nonverbal language is sometimes referred to as "body language." Americans generally feel comfortable talking to one another while standing two to three feet apart. Americans vary greatly in the amount and type of arm and hand gestures they use while speaking. By and large, those of you from Asian countries may feel that Americans gesture a great deal; those of you from the Middle East, southern Europe, or Latin America may find Americans very restrained in this regard. In the U.S., it is considered courteous to look directly at another person while speaking to her or him and also to look directly at a person who is speaking to you. People shift their focus for a brief second from time to time to avoid the impression of staring, which is considered rude. In conversation with another person, it is considered acceptable to touch her or him briefly on the arm or shoulder to indicate that you are in sympathy with the person. Women expect and should be given the same respect and consideration in conversation as men.

Money Matters

As a reminder, your earnings as a teaching assistant are taxable. Taxes are deducted from your paycheck and, as a result, your take-home pay will be less than your stated salary. The fact that payroll taxes are deducted from your earnings does not free you from any obligation to file a U.S. income tax form. Check with your department secretary or with payroll personnel for further information.

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

GENERAL WORKS

Astin, Alexander. Achieving Educational Excellence: A Critical Assessment of Priorities and Practices in Higher Education. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1985.
Critical examination of traditional and implicit standards of excellence in higher education with discussion of alternatives.

Brown, James W., Lewis, Richard B., and Harcleroad, Fred F. 4th ed., AV Instruction: Technology, Media, and Methods. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1973.
Somewhat outdated and not intended primarily for use at the college level. However, it does contain some good suggestions for the use of audio-visual equipment.

Cahn, Steven M., ed. Scholars Who Teach: The Art of College Teaching. Chicago: Nelson-Hall, 1978.
Focuses on teaching within specific disciplines. Includes writings on teaching in History, English, Mathematics, Science, Social Science, Foreign Language and Literature, and Music.

Chickering, Arthur W. and Associates. The Modern American College. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1981.
This extensive volume provides a framework for understanding adult development and learning within the college context, and provides concrete suggestions on application of these principles to all aspects of college life, including discipline-specific curricular content and instructional methods.

Cooper, Russell, ed. The Two Ends of the Log. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1958.
Although somewhat outdated in parts, contains chapters on a wide range of topics from motivating student interest to the community in college teaching.

Cross, K. Patricia. Accent on Learning. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1976.
Based on review of over 1,000 research studies, the author discusses classroom teaching and student development.

Eble, Kenneth E. The Craft of Teaching. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1976.
Provides specific advice and suggestions to improve the teaching of all college instructors as it relates to most aspects of teaching from "The Mythology of Teaching" to "Grubby Stuff and Dirty Work."

Eble, Kenneth E. The Aims of College Teaching. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1983.
Focuses on the philosophy of college teaching and includes material on the relationship of teaching to scholarship, the development of a teaching style, and how teachers learn to teach.

Ericksen, Stanford C. The Essence of Good Teaching: Helping Students Learn and Remember What They Learn. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1984.
Intended to give the college teacher a conceptual base for improvement of teaching. Moves from discussion of general principles to specific presentations on instructional means, motivating students, etc.

Fuhrmann, Barbara S. and Grasha, Anthony F. A Practical Handbook for College Teachers. Boston: Little Brown and Co, 1983.
Reviews the history of higher education in the United States and its implications for current teaching methods and practices. Describes current perspectives on learning and relates them to daily classroom activities. Also contains sections on the use of media and alternative course design.

Gronbeck, Bruce. The Articulate Person: A Guide to Everyday Public Speaking. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman, and Company, 1979.
Useful for those planning to lecture.

Gullette, Margaret M., ed. The Art and Craft of Teaching. Cambridge, MA: Harvard-Danforth Center for Teaching and Learning, 1982.
Contains articles related to aspects of college teaching such as lecturing, the first day of class, grading and evaluation, suggestions for beginning teachers, the rhythms of the semester, etc.

Highet, Gilbert. The Art of Teaching. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1950.
A classic and often-cited work. Offers reflections on the author's twenty years in teaching. Includes chapters on the teacher, teaching methods, great teachers and their pupils, and the role of teaching in everyday life.

Layton, David, ed. University Teaching in Transition. Edinburgh, Scotland: Oliver and Boyd, 1968.
Includes sections on teaching large and small groups, including labs, aids to teaching and learning, examinations, etc.

Lowman, Joseph. Mastering the Techniques of Teaching. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1984.
Includes sections on understanding classroom dynamics, developing interpersonal skills and teaching styles, selecting and organizing material for class presentations, use of discussion as a learning technique, and tips for evaluating student performance.

McKeachie, Wilbert J. Teaching Tips: A Guidebook for the Beginning College Teacher. 7th ed., Lexington, MA: D. C. Heath and Co., 1978.
The classic how-to book. Serves as a starting point for most of the literature on teaching in colleges and universities and is not for beginners only. Covers most relevant topics in some detail.

Milton, Ohmer and Associates. On College Teaching: A Guide to Contemporary Practices. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1978.
Includes writings by various authors on topics not generally covered in the literature, such as computers in the classroom, working with older students, learning through field experience, use of case studies, use of simulation/gaming, etc.

Journals

College Teaching (formerly Improving College and University Teaching). Washington, D.C.: Heldref Publications, quarterly.
Journal designed to support college teaching, focusing on innovative ideas, successful techniques and methods, and new programs.

New Directions for Teaching and Learning. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, quarterly.
Each issue is concerned with a selected topic and contains relevant writings by six to seven authors. Recent representative issue topics include rejuvenating introductory courses, the first year of college teaching, and teaching writing in all disciplines.

TEST CONSTRUCTION

Adkins, Dorothy C. Test Construction: Development and Interpretation of Achievement Tests. 2nd ed., 1974. Columbus, OH: Merrill Publishing.
Score interpretation and statistics, use of essay questions, construction of objective items.

Ebel, Robert L. Essentials of Educational Measurement. 3rd ed., Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1979.
Text and reference book for those interested in educational measurement. Discussion and examples of various types of questions, expanded introduction to statistical techniques common in testing.

Gronlund, Norman E. Constructing Achievement Tests. 2nd ed., Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1982.
Short, relatively non-technical guide to test construction. Contains many examples of various question types. Also elementary introduction to test statistics, reliability, and validity.

Nunnally, Jum C. Educational Measurement and Evaluation. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1964.
General text on educational measurement and evaluation. Although not written for college teachers, it contains often-cited material on construction and use of particular types of questions.

Sanders, Norris. Classroom Questions: What Kinds? New York: Harper and Row, 1966.
Classic work on the development and use of questions in the classroom for both teaching and testing.

Thorndike, Robert L., ed. Educational Measurement. 2nd ed., Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1971.
Test construction and measurement. Although not geared to testing in the college classroom, contains much valuable information for those who need or desire to become more familiar with technical aspects of testing.

Tuckman, Bruce W. Measuring Educational Outcomes: Fundamentals of Testing. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1975.
Although not intended primarily for college instructors, contains much useful material on test planning, construction, and evaluation.

TEACHING ASSISTANT HANDBOOKS AND RELATED MATERIAL FROM OTHER UNIVERSITIES

Althen, Gary. Manual for Foreign Teaching Assistants.
Iowa City: The University of Iowa, 1981.

University of California, Davis, Teaching Resources Center. TA Handbook.
University of California, Davis, no date available.

University of California, Irvine, Division of Graduate Studies and Research. Teaching Assistant Handbook. University of California, Irvine, 1983.

University of California, Los Angeles, Teaching Assistant Training Program. The TA at UCLA. University of California, Los Angeles, 1984.

University of California, Los Angeles, Teaching Assistant Training Program. Notes for TA Consultants: A Sourcebook of Suggestions and Guidelines for Improving Undergraduate Instruction. University of California, Los Angeles, 1984.

University of California, Riverside, Graduate Division. Handbook for Teaching Assistants. University of California, Riverside, no date available.

University of California, San Diego, Office of Graduate Studies and Research. A Handbook for Teaching Assistants. University of California, San Diego, 1982.

University of California, Santa Barbara, Office of Instructional Consultation. TAs as Teachers: A Handbook for Teaching Assistants at UCSB. University of California, Santa Barbara, 1984.

Stanford University, Center for Teaching and Learning. Teaching at Stanford: An Introductory Handbook. Stanford University, 1983.

UW-MADISON TEACHING ASSISTANT AND OTHER INSTRUCTIONAL MANUALS

Department of English. Handbook for Teaching Assistants in the English Department, 1984.

Department of Mathematics. Helpful Hints to Good Teaching, 1983.

Department of Physics. A Teaching Assistant's Guide to the Physics Department, 1983.

Instructional Improvement Committee, College of Agriculture and Life Sciences. Instructional Improvement Handbook, 1982.

DISCIPLINARY INSTRUCTIONAL MANUALS

Becker, W.E. et al. A Training System for Graduate Student Instructors of Economics. Center for Educational Development, University of Minnesota, 1975.

Committee on the Teaching of Undergraduate Mathematics, Mathematical Association of America. College Mathematics: Suggestions on How to Teach It. Mathematical Association of America, 1979.

Committee on the Teaching of Undergraduate Mathematics, Mathematical Association of America. Training Programs for Teaching Assistants in Mathematics. Mathematical Association of America, 1979.

University of Wisconsin–Madison
Labs for Recorded Instruction

279 Van Hise Hall
1220 Linden Drive
Madison, Wisconsin 53706
Tel.: (608) 262-1408

RESOURCES FOR IMPROVING

TEACHING METHODS AND TECHNIQUES

A collection for campus-wide use by
ALL UW-MADISON FACULTY and TEACHING ASSISTANTS

The videocassettes and other materials listed on the following pages have been recommended by University of Wisconsin faculty and teaching assistants as resources for the training of teaching assistants. The collection is an outgrowth of the Conference on the Training of Teaching Assistants held in 1979.

Some materials have been produced at the University of Wisconsin, or by UW faculty; others have been purchased from the producers. The project is partially funded by the UW-Madison Committee on Undergraduate Education.

The collection is available to all UW-Madison faculty and teaching assistants at the Labs for Recorded Instruction (LRI) on the second floor of Van Hise Hall, Room 274. To use these materials:

1. Come to LRI lab, room 274 Van Hise, to view the tapes on a small monitor--no appointment necessary;

   OR

2. contact the LRI 24 hours in advance to view the tapes on a larger screen (for groups of up to 25 people); telephone, 262-1678;

   OR

3. reserve a tape for use at a departmental program, at any campus location. Tapes are loaned on a first come, first served basis for one to three days; contact the LRI at 262-1678 in advance.

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For extra copies of this list, please ask for LRI Document No. 1062. No. 5 - Sept. 1980

RESOURCES FOR IMPROVING TEACHING METHODS AND TECHNIQUES

Ⓟ *with printed materials*

ED 3.001 EFFECTIVE LANGUAGE LEARNING (Dartmouth--Exxon Education Foundation, 1975)

.01 Dr. Rassias narrates the explanation and illustration of the Rassias/Dartmouth method for teaching foreign language communication. The program involves a master teacher who introduces new materials, language lab reinforcement exercises, and specially trained undergraduate apprentice teachers for small group drilling. COLOR 25 min.

ED 3.002 STRATEGIES IN COLLEGE TEACHING (Indiana University)

.01 Observing Teaching COLOR 50 min.

Describes the process of observing teaching: the pre-observation interview between the instructor and the observer, how to observe what happens in the classroom, and how to conduct a followup meeting between the instructor and the observer. It stresses further the need to avoid imposing a particular teaching style on an observed teacher, and the importance of engaging in a joint venture to discover the particular style of the observed teacher. The tape is valuable both for instructors whose classes are to be visited for an observation-evaluation and for faculty whose task it is to observe other instructors.

.02 Leading Discussions COLOR 50 min.

Shows a discussion between two knowledgeable instructors about class discussions and illustrates some problems which typically occur in discussions by means of simulations and excerpts from actual classroom discussions, plus comments suggesting ways of improving classroom discussion. The tape begins with a review of different uses of discussion, moves on to consider the various types of functions of questions, and concludes with five suggestions for making effective use of discussion techniques in teaching.

.03 Media in the Classroom COLOR 50 min.

Illustrates how to use various media in discussion classes and in large lecture classes. Included are overhead projectors, opaque projectors, slide projectors, copy machines, film projectors, videotape players, tape recorders, and records. The tape emphasizes how each type of media can enhance the learning of students and the effectiveness of the teacher. Although the applications are for English composition courses, numerous suggestions are given about how to use media in a variety of other courses.

.04 Effective Grouping Techniques COLOR 24 min.

Shows several ways of having students work in small groups in the classroom to help achieve various instructional goals, such as: (1) setting the direction for a subsequent class discussion, (2) problem solving, (3) brain-storming, (4) introducing students to a skill, (5) applying skills already learned in class, (6) stimulating a lethargic or ill-prepared class, and (7) creating a classroom atmosphere.

ED 3.003 TRIGGER TAPES (Univ. of Michigan) COLOR 30 min.

.01 Presents short dramatization of a series of situations which focus on common problems encountered by new instructors in the classroom and in out-of-class dealings with students. Each episode is of about 2-3 minutes duration, and concludes with the narrator asking "...and now, what would you do?" The tapes are highly useful in stimulating viewers to discuss alternative ways of dealing with the problems illustrated. The episodes are done effectively, and though dealing with the teaching of psychology, the tapes are equally useful in other courses. The titles of the episodes are:
(1) The Model Teacher, (2) Goals, (3) Grades, (4) Picking a Reading List, (5) The Office Hour, (6) The Contract, (7) On the Bins, (8) Never at a Class, (9) The Assignment, (10) There is One in Every Class and Sometimes More.

ED 3.004 INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS — COLOR — 28 min.

.01 Presents two simulated sessions involving interpersonal communication skills, developed for use at the 1973 Summer Workshop on the teaching of College Economics at Indiana University. The first segment shows an instructor meeting with his class after having returned an exam on which the students did poorly; it captures the discussion that arises as students voice their complaints to the instructor about the exam. The second segment shows a teaching assistant conferring with the professor in charge of the course on how to handle his next discussion section. These two segments can also provide a starting point for discussing a variety of other topics, such as grading, instructional objectives, and course planning. Useful for courses other than Economics.

Note: the photography and sound are poor in some segments of the tape.

ED 3.005 TEACHING WRITING TO ECONOMICS STUDENTS; Steward and Hansen — B/W — 50 min.

.01 A comprehensive treatment of teaching writing to students. Applicable to all disciplines.

ED 3.006 T.I.P.S. (Duke Univ.--Exxon Education Foundation) — B/W — 11 min.

.01 A description of the T.I.P.S. (Teaching Information Processing System) system of programmed instruction. It is a method by which a student may, with the assistance of a computer, gain instant feedback about progress in a course. Note: sound is missing from the first few seconds of tape.

ED 3.007 VIDEOTAPE INSERVICE PROGRAM ON TEACHING SECOND LANGUAGES (Wisc.Dept.of Public Instruction)

Ⓟ This series of videocassettes illustrates the various methods which have proven successful in teaching foreign languages and English as a Second Language (ESL).

.01	Goals and Techniques in the Audio-lingual Approach	B/W	60 min.
.02	Doing a Worksheet; Teaching a Dialog	COLOR	21 min.
.03	Asking for Directions	COLOR	60 min.
.04	Gouin: Going to the Board; Taking a Bus	COLOR	60 min.
.05	Grammar Lesson	COLOR	60 min.
.06	Auditory Discrimination	COLOR	60 min.
.07	Toward Free Conversation (Part 1)	COLOR	60 min.
.08	Toward Free Conversation (Part 2)	COLOR	30 min.

ED 3.008 USING THE CASE APPROACH (UW-Madison, Department of Economics)

Using the case approach in discussion sections of introductory economics courses. The case method can be applied to other areas of study.

.01 A Demonstration: Discussing a Simple Case — B/W — 60 min.

Prof. Fels, who originated the method, leads the discussion of a simple case by a small group of undergraduate students with no prior economics training.

.02 A Demonstration: Discussing a Policy Case — B/W — 60 min.

Prof. Fels, with the same group of students, explaining his Standard Operating Procedure for discussing policy cases and then applying the SOP to a policy case.

.03 Practice in Discussing Cases: A Simple Case; Another Simple Case — B/W — 60 min.

Prof. Hansen attempting to follow Prof. Fels' example in discussing the first case, and another simple case.

ED 3.009 DO'S AND DON'TS OF DRILLING (Cornell Univ., 1972) B/W 35 min.

(P) .01 This tape demonstrates some of the techniques that have proved successful in the sessions which bring students and native speakers together for oral practice. While the group that was filmed happened to be learning Japanese, the techniques employed are equally applicable to other languages.

ED 3.010 PROJECT TEACH (Univ. of Nebraska-Lincoln--Exxon Educational Foundation; 1976)

(P)

Project TEACH (Training in Education for Assistants in Chemistry) was designed to produce materials in several media in order to increase the effectiveness of training programs for chemistry teaching assistants. The materials are in several modules which may be used separately or together in a variety of formats including preservice seminars, workshops, and continuing courses. Prof. Bassam Z. Shakhashiri of the UW-Madison Dept. of Chemistry served as a member of the Project TEACH staff that developed these materials.

.01 Introduction (I) COLOR 9 min.
An introductory videotape dramatizes the transition in roles between student and teaching assistant which most new teaching assistants experience. This videotape facilitates discussions among new teaching assistants regarding their new roles, and thereby provides a setting for the introduction of topics related to teaching techniques.

.02 Questioning Skills (III) COLOR 20 min.
A module consisting of a videotape lesson and a brief written handout introduces the teaching assistant to a wide variety of questioning skills. The use of questioning and responding techniques to bring about positive interactions between teaching assistant and students is discussed. Classification of the level of questions and of the categories of cognitive skills required to deal with these questions is also considered.

.03 Reinforcement Theory (IV) COLOR 22 min.
Two videotape lessons and a written handout introduce the teaching assistant to useful techniques for encouraging desired student behavior and, when necessary, discouraging undesired behavior. In the videotapes, a series of vignettes show a teaching assistant applying "positive reinforcement" and "extinction", the best techniques for encouraging and discouraging student behavior, respectively. Overdramatized and simplified situations are used to attract teaching assistant interest and stimulate response and discussion.

.04 Tutoring (VI) COLOR 11 min.
A videotape lesson and a written handout present an interactive model for the t teaching assistant to follow in one-to-one teaching situations. The seven steps identified in this model serve to help the teaching assistant first determine the nature of a student's learning problem and then use questions and directions as cues to involve the student in solving the problem. Examples where these techniques are ignored or are used well dramatically emphasize their importance and provide a ready basis for discussion.

.05 Microteaching (VII) COLOR] 8 min.
A videotape lesson and brief written handout introduce the teaching assistant to the technique of microteaching. It provides teaching assistants with a mechanism for practicing teaching techniques, and for evaluating gestures, mannerisms, chalkboard skills, etc., in a non-threatening environment. Microteaching is presented as a means of practicing the skills described in other Project TEACH modules.

.06 Interaction Analysis (VIII) COLOR 15 min.
A videotape lesson, a workbook, and an audio tape present to the teaching assistant a scheme for classifying and coding the interactions between students and teaching assistants. The purpose of this instruction is two-fold. It helps new teaching assistants to recognize the variety of verbal interactions that can occur in the classroom. For teaching assistants who have developed some interaction coding skills, it helps objectively to compare, in a semi-quantitative fashion, the intent of instruction with the actual instruction. Interaction analysis matrices are presented to teaching assistants as a diagnostic tool for use in improving teaching.

The techniques demonstrated in this series can be utilized in other disciplines.

T.A. TRAINING MATERIALS

ED 3.011 COLLEGE CLASSROOM VIGNETTES (Northwestern University) B/W

(P)

These are videotapes of unstaged classroom incidents and of interviews with professors and students. When viewers observe these classroom events and hear the participants talking about them, they are stimulated to think about their own teaching. Vignettes are divided into segments, so that reactions can be shared after each segment. Each tape comes with a discussion guide and other and other written materials designed to help participants.

.01 Using Questions to Stimulate Discussion (1975, rev.1979) 30 min.

Vignette I is a study of one meeting of a small discussion class for freshmen and sophomores. Two classroom segments are included, and interview with the professor, comments by students after watching the tape, and students discussing the class at a reunion two years later. This tape is useful for training in classroom observation and interaction analysis.

.02 Moderating Disagreements Among Students (1975, rev.1979) 15 min.

Vignette II shows differences of opinion among students in two classes (linguistics and history) and the styles of each professor in responding to the disagreement. Viewers see how personal factors and subject matter perceptions influence student and professor behavior and are led to consider what is appropriate and inappropriate classroom behavior. One segment is given with audio only to introduce the topic of nonverbal communication.

.03 Helping Students Clarify Ideas (1976) 20 min.

Vignette III presents discussion groups in an upper division course, "The Rhetorical History of the United States." The professor (of communication studies) explains in an interview that he wants his students to become more articulate in expressing their own and opposing views. Three class segments show how he structures discussion around assigned questions in order to help students express ideas. This tape illustrates levels of classroom questions and kinds of responses.

.04 Analyzing Questions Before Answering Them (1976) 25 min.

Vignette IV shows a communication studies professor with a discussion class and a calculus professor working with a small group at the chalkboard. Each professor is interviewed about goals and assumptions and each is shown talking with students. This tape contrasts professors with similar goals but different styles and different subject matters.

.05 Lecturing: The First Few Minutes (1976) 25 min.

Vignette V gives the opening minutes of lecture classes in history, psychology, education, calculus, and sociology, some introductory and some advanced. Enrollments range from fifty to several hundred. The formality of styles varies greatly; some instructors use audio-visual devices and some elicit comments from students during the lecture. This tape illustrates varied lecture atmospheres and encourages speculation on their underlying assumptions.

BOOKS and OTHER PRINTED MATERIALS also available in the LRI Lab, 274 Van Hise

ED 6.001 RESOURCE MANUAL FOR TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAMS IN ECONOMICS; Phillip Saunders, Arthur L. Welsh, W. Lee Hansen; N.Y., Joint Council on Economic Education, 1978.

ORIENTATION FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE TA'S (LRI)

TYPE OF PROGRAM: Teaching demonstrations for TA orientation program.

DESCRIPTION: These videotapes are intended to increase the effectiveness of orientation programs for foreign language TA's. They include demonstrations of effective teaching techniques and discussions of the techniques illustrated. Recorded during TA orientation programs, starting in the fall of 1982.

FORMAT: Videocassette

CONTENTS:

			1982	
Constance Knop	(000)	Teaching oral skills	50:00	ED 3.012.01
Lucia Garner	(000)	Teaching pattern drills: Spanish	35:00	ED 3.012.02
Robert DiDonato	(352)	Teaching pattern drills: German	37:00	
Henry Geitz	(000)	Teaching grammar: German	45:00	ED 3.012.03
Jeff Kirsch	(000)	Auditory discrimination; pronunciation	42:00	ED 3.012.04
Sally Magnan	(000)	Oral work: error correction	62:00	ED 3.012.05
			1983	
Marina Sung	(000)	Teaching a dialog: Chinese	20:00	ED 3.012.06
Constance Knop	(226)	Teaching a dialog: French	74:00	
Robert DiDonato	(000)	Teaching a dialog: German	17:00	ED 3.012.07
Constance Knop	(100)	Guidelines and examples	16:00	
Robert DiDonato	(000)	Discussion on teaching a dialog	32:00	ED 3.012.08
Jeff Kirsch	(325)	Classroom preparation I	42:00	
Lucia Garner	(000)	Pattern practice	48:00	ED 3.012.09
Robert DiDonato	(435)	Pattern practice	35:00	
Cathy Jones	(000)	Pattern practice demo: French	19:00	ED 3.012.10
Margarita Gomez	(115)	Pattern practice demo: Spanish	17:00	
Constance Knop	(203)	Discussion	13:00	
Sally Magnan	(000)	Drill sequence worksheet	16:00	ED 3.012.11
Mark Sheeran	(190)	French grammar demo: Aller	21:00	
	(370)	Discussion	24:00	
Francie Cate	(000)	Teaching Spanish grammar	12:00	ED 3.012.12
Lucia Garner	( )	Teaching Spanish grammar	36:00	

Sally Magnan	(000)	Teaching grammar: French	58:00	ED 3.012.13
Constance Knop	(000)	Developing listening skills	54:30	ED 3.012.14
Robert Rodini	(000)	First day Italian lesson	42:00	ED 3.012.15
Cathy Jones	(000)	First day French lesson	40:00	ED 3.012.16
Jeff Kirsh	(000)	Classroom procedure II	27:00	ED 3.012.17
Sally Magnan	(285)	Error correction presentation	48:00	

CLASSIFICATION CODES

at UW-Madison

School of Allied Health Professions

PPA-	PY	Pre-Physician Assistant
-PA-	PA	Physician Assistant
MDT-	MD	Medical Technology
OTP-	OP	Pre-Occupational Therapy
OCT-	OT	Occupational Therapy
PPT-	PT	Pre-Physical Therapy
PTH-	TH	Physical Therapy
-AHS	--	Allied Health Special
-AH-	AH	Allied Health Graduate
PMT-	PX	Pre-Medical Technology

Institute for Environmental Studies

IES-	ES	Environmental Studies
IESS	--	Environmental Studies Special
IES-	ES	Environmental Studies Graduate

School of Veterinary Medicine

VET-	-V	Veterinary Medicine
VETS	--	Veterinary Medicine Special
VET-	VM	Veterinary Medicine Graduate

College of Letters and Science

PJA-	PJ	Pre-Journalism--B.A.
PJS-	PK	Pre-Journalism--B.S.
MUS-	MU	Music
PRB-	PR	Pre-Business
PRP-	PP	Pre-Pharmacy
PTX-	TO	Pre-Pharmacology and Toxicology (Effective Sem. 2/85)
PRS-	PS	Pre-Secondary Education
-LSS	--	Letters and Science Special
-LS-	LS	Letters and Science Graduate
AMP-	AP	Applied Mathematics & Engineering Physics
-BA-	BA	General Course--B.A.
-BS-	BS	General Course--B.S.
CHC-	CC	Chemistry Course
HUM-	HU	Humanities
JBA-	JA	Journalism--B.A.
JBS-	JB	Journalism--B.S.

NOTE: Student standings are as follows:

1 = freshman
2 = sophomore
3 = junior
4 = senior
5 = graduate student
9 = special student

College of Agricultural and Life Sciences

ALC-	AC	Construction Administration
ALV-	AV	Pre-Veterinary Medicine
ALS-	AL	Agriculture
ALM-	AM	Agriculture--Two-Year Course
ALE-	AE	Agricultural Engineering
ALA-	LA	Landscape Architecture
PLA-	PL	Pre-Landscape Architecture
ALSS	--	Agriculture Special
ALS-	AL	Agriculture Graduate

School of Family Resources and Consumer Sciences

-FR-	FR	Family Resources
-FRS	--	Family Resources Special
-FR-	FR	Family Resources Graduate

School of Business

BUS-	BU	Business
BUSS	--	Business Special
BUS-	BU	Business Graduate

School of Education

AED-	AT	Art Education
ART-	AR	Art
BFA-	BF	Fine Arts--B.F.A.
BDC-	BD	Behavioral Disabilities (Certification Program Not Yet Declared)
BEC-	BC	Behavioral Disabilities (Certification in Early Childhood)
BED-	BE	Behavioral Disabilities (Certification in Emotional Disturbance)
BMR-	BM	Behavioral Disabilities (Certification in Mental Retardation)
BDN-	BN	Behavioral Disabilities (Non-Certification Program)
BDR-	BR	Behavioral Disabilities (Rehabilitation) (Non-Certification Program)
EED-	EL	Elementary Education
PBH-	PB	Pre-Behavioral Disabilities
PRE-	PE	Pre-Elementary Education
CPE-	CP	Dance (Certification)
MPE-	MP	Men's Physical Education
PEC-	PC	Phy Ed - Teacher Certification
PED-	PM	Physical Education
PEK-	PZ	Phy Ed - Biomechanics or Kinesiology
PEM-	OD	Phy Ed - Motor Development
PES-	SP	Phy Ed - Exercise Specialist
PEX-	XP	Phy Ed - Exercise Physiology
PPE-	PD	Dance (Performing and Choreography) (Non-Certification Program)
TPE-	TP	Dance (Therapy) (Non-Certification Program)
WPE-	WP	Women's Physical Education
SED-	SE	Secondary Education
-EDS	--	Education Special
EDAS	--	Special (Not Qualified Academically for Continued Enrollment As Degree Candidate in School of Education)
EDCS	--	Special With Degree Working Towards 2nd Certification
-ED-	ED	Education Graduate
IME-	IM	Individual Major

College of Engineering

CHE-	CH	Chemical Engineering
CEE-	CE	Civil and Environmental Engineeering
ECE-	EC	Electrical and Computer Engineering
-EM-	EM	Engineering Mechanics
-ME-	ME	Mechanical Engineering
MME-	MM	Metallurgical and Mineral Engineering
-NE-	NE	Nuclear Engineering
--ES	--	Engineering Special
EPDS	--	Engineering Professional Development Degree Special
--E-	EN	Engineering Graduate
EGR-	ER	General Engineering (Assigned to Engineering New Freshmen)
-IE-	IE	Industrial Engineering

Law School

LAW-	-L	Law
LAWS	--	Law Special
LAW-	LW	Law Graduate

Medical School

MED-	-M	Medicine
MEDS	--	Medicine Special
GRM-	MN	Medicine Graduate

School of Nursing

NUR-	NU	Nursing
NRN-	NR	Registered Nurse
PRR-	RR	Pre-Registered Nurse
PRN-	PN	Pre-Nursing
NURS	--	Nursing Special
NUR-	NU	Nursing Graduate

School of Pharmacy

-PH-	PH	Pharmacy
TOX-	TX	Pharmacology and Toxicology (Effective Sem. 1/86)
-PHS	--	Pharmacy Special
-PH-	PH	Pharmacy Graduate

Office of Inter-College Programs

GUES	--	Guest Student
-UNS	--	University Special
CIC-	--	Committee on Institutional Cooperation (Big Ten and University of Chicago) Graduate
CICS	--	Committee on Institutional Cooperation Special

NOTES

Double Classifications.

If a student is working on degrees in two schools or colleges at the same time, he is double classified. Two two-position alphabetic codes are joined to create a four-position code. The two-position code of the school or college in which the student expects to graduate first should be in the first position, e.g., AL plus ME is ALME. If the student's second degree is in law or medicine, the second two-position code consists of the student's year in school and an "L" or an "M," e.g., BA4L or AL5M.

Joint Registrants in Education.

Admission into a pre-certification program in a school or college other than Education is indicated when either an "A" or a "D" is added in the fourth position of the four-position alphabetic code, e.g., -FR- and -FRA or MUS- and MUSD. If admission is granted into a certification program, the letter "C" should be added instead, e.g., -FR- and -FRC.

UW-Madison Guidelines for Retention of Student Records, reprinted from Archives and Records Management Manual, p. 32.

STUDENT RECORDS:

The following is a reprint of records disposition authorization 130/84, the campus-wide records schedule covering certain student records.

Note: Throughout this document references will be made to the Permanent Document File (PDF). Beginning in 1978, all students at the U.W.-Madison will have a PDF. The PDF contains all the Registrar records relating to a student's academic career at the University and represents the documents necessary to confirm or support entries made on the student's official academic record. The PDF is designated for permanent preservation.

Item #1 Final Grade Lists and Control Books.

The final grade list is a computer generated, three-part carbonless form that is distributed to the academic departments. Lists of students by course showing course and section number, descriptive title, number of credits, semester and year, department and final grade (supplied by faculty or instructor of the course). The original list is sent back to the Registrar and their grades are entered into the student data base. This list then is the source document for the final grade reports. Two copies of the list are retained by the department and faculty member respectively. Control books contain distribution and collection information. Books are distributed with the lists to the departments which they then use to verify that all grade lists have been distributed and then returned.

Recommended Minimum Retention:
Registrar's Office: Retain 1 year and transfer to the U.W.-Archives for permanent preservation.Department: Retain 5 years and destroy.
Faculty: Retain 5 years and destroy.

Item #2 Grade Books.

Faculty records of grades given in whatever form maintained (regardless of format or medium)

Recommended Minimum Retention:
Faculty/Department: Retain 5 years and destroy.

Item #3 Source Documents for Final Grade Lists.

Source documents normally include blue books, term papers or other written projects. In this context, term papers or other written projects are those documents submitted in lieu of a final examinations. (Blue books and copies of final papers may have been returned to the students and are not available for retention.)

Recommended Minimum Retention:
Retain one semester and destroy (Reference: Madison Newsletter, Vol. 6, No. 1 September 1979 and Vol.3, No. 1 November 1981).